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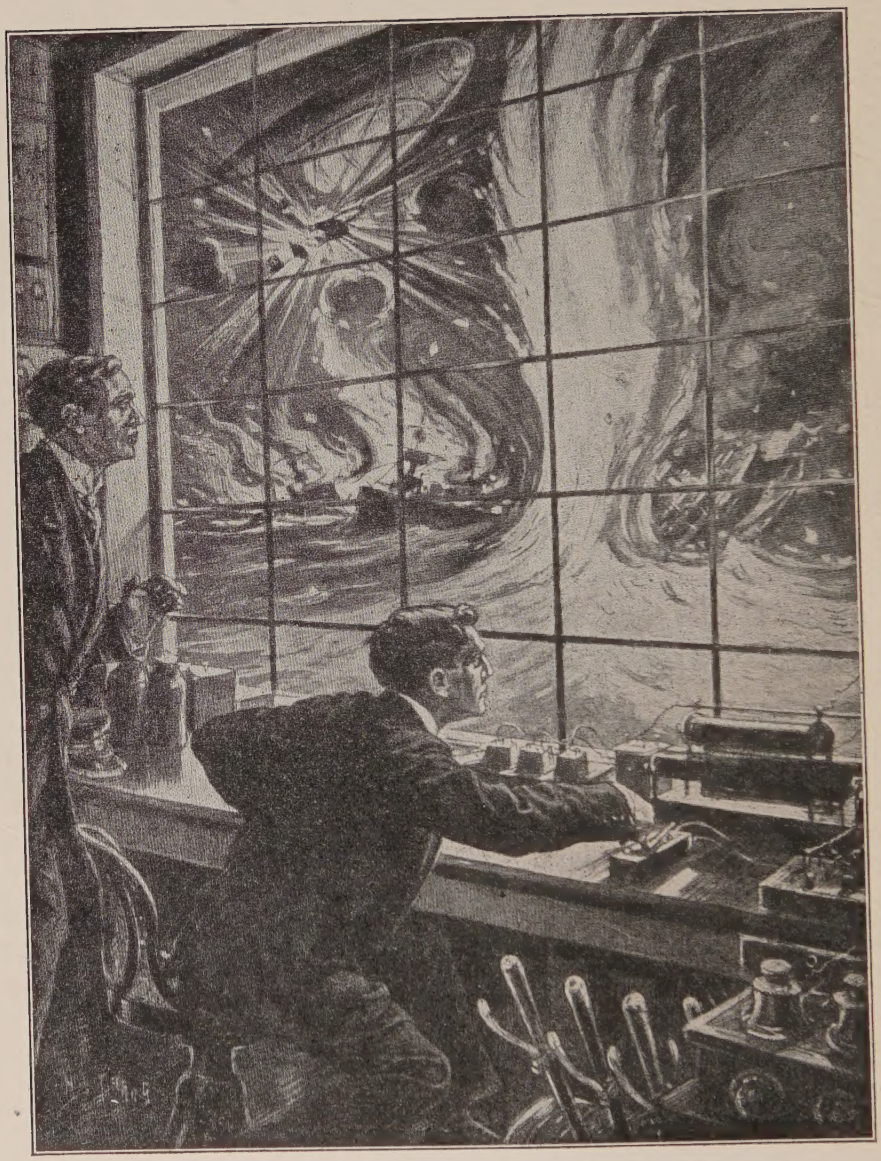

A VISION OF WHAT MIGHT BE
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EXCITING PERSONAL EXPERIENCES

EUROPE AT WAR

Thrilling Stories of the Great Battles of the World and the Greatest War of all Wars

---

Showing the causes that led up to it, including the assasination of the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne and his wife, together with the history of previous European wars of modern times.

Also giving the Military and Naval Strength of the Nations at War, Their Previous Relations and National Characteristics.

ILLUSTRATED WITH PHOTOGRAPHS, MAPS AND DRAWINGS

By JUDGE HENRY NEIL
Known Throughout the World as the Father of Mothers' Pensions

Also known by his pen name
MARSHALL EVERETT
Author of a History of Japanese-Russian War, History of the Spanish-American War, Life of William McKinley, Story of the Titanic Disaster

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CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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PREFACE

The spectacle of all but one of the really great powers of Europe at war eclipses all the other war spectacles in the history of the world in the number of troops, the magnitude of armament and the theater of operations.

Millions of men met upon battlefields where tens of thousands had met before. Siege guns of a size unheard of before were used to reduce fortifications, and perfected machine guns mowed down battalions, while submarine and aeroplanes and monster Zeppelins played for the first time their deadly parts in the carnage of battles.

In order to understand and appreciate the importance of events of the great European war of 1914 it is desirable, and more or less necessary, to know the previous war history of Europe, the relations of the contending powers, their peoples and their history.

In this volume, *Europe at War,* will be found a history of the events leading up to the outbreak of hostilities between Austria-Hungary and Servia, which plunged a continent into the most gigantic armed conflict ever known or conceived.

In this great work will be found the thrilling story of the assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir

to the Austrian throne and his morganatic wife, which was the overt act that precipitated the war.

The form and manner in which war was declared by the several powers, giving their reasons therefor, including the speeches of the German Kaiser; the British Foreign Minister, Sir Edward Grey; the manifesto of the aged Austrian Emperor, Franz Joseph, together with the ultimatums and declarations of war are also set forth.

The Triple Alliance and Triple Entente are described and explained, thus explaining the alignment of the forces engaged in the gigantic conflict.

Europe at War contains the history of all the decisive battles of the world from Marathon to the battle that ended the Russo-Japanese war. In these thrilling descriptions of the world's greatest battles preceding the great European war of 1914 may be found facts and figures for comparison with the greatest of all wars in the history of the world.

The Seven Years' war waged by the great ancestor of the Kaiser, Frederick the Great, in which all Europe was arrayed against him, is given a special chapter.

Another chapter is devoted to the Franco-Prussian war of 1870, which left France and Germany mortal enemies, and which resulted in the enormous armaments and war preparations of those nations, which were under way for more than forty years. This work also contains a description of the fair provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, which Germany exacted from France as a war prize, and which were the scenes of hard fighting in the great war of 1914.

One of the underlying causes of the world's greatest war was the growth of Pan-Slavism and Pan-Germanism, the sentiments which united the Slav races into one faction and

the Germanic races into another, with resulting rivalries and antagonisms, all of which are fully explained herein.

Thrilling Personal Experiences in the War constitute a chapter to stir red blood, reciting daring deeds of individuals in battles of earth, sea and air.

Under the title Best Stories of the War are given a series of incidents replete with tragedy, adventure, humor, pathos and human interest.

All the rulers of the nations at war in 1914 were related by blood or marriage except the King of Servia. Just what these relationships were, giving the various marriages between European royalty are accurately told herein.

The biographies and personal histories of the leading commanders and rulers make another attractive feature. Among them will be found faithful pen portraits of the German Kaiser, Lord Kitchener of Khartoum, the young King of the Belgians and others.

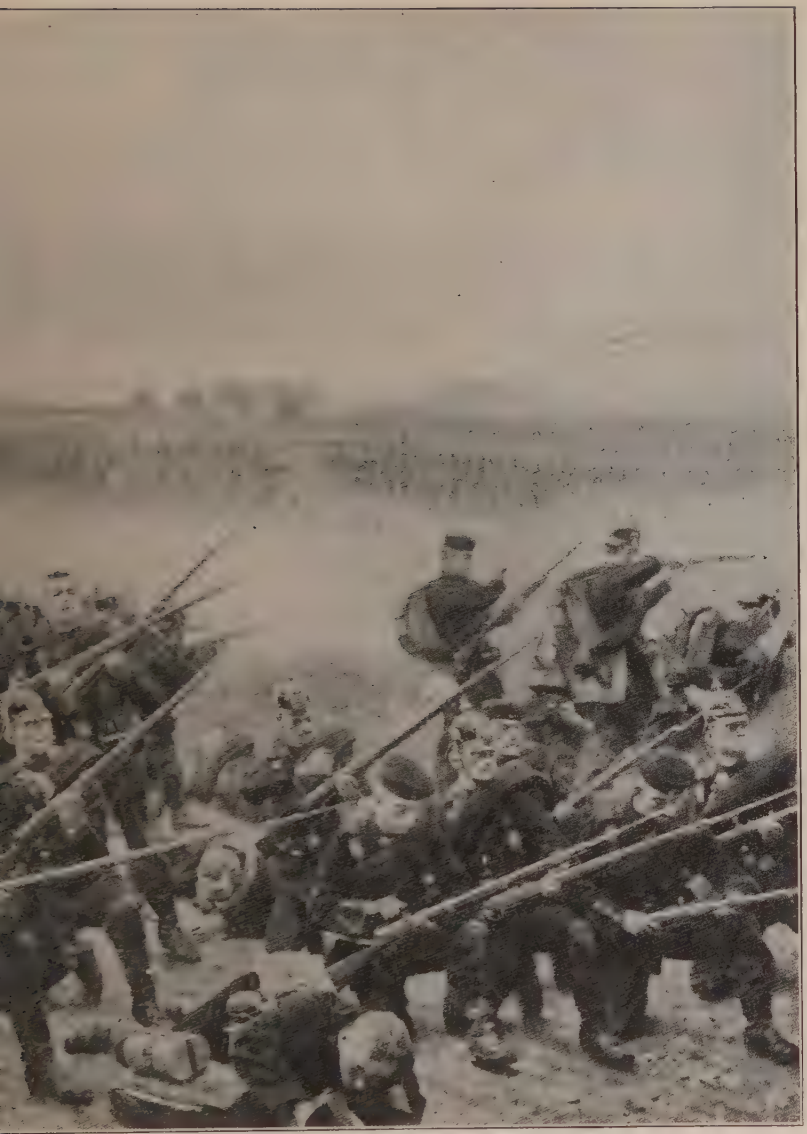
This great work also contains descriptions of the modern methods of warfare, submarines, aeroplanes, the deadly mines sown on land and sea and how they are operated.

The characteristics and habits of the various peoples and interesting and valuable facts concerning the nations at war are given.

The army and navy strength of the Great Powers are accurately set forth.

In fact, everything of historical and educational value necessary to an understanding of the world's greatest war has been made a feature of this great work.

THE GREAT BATTLE AT LIEGE, BELGIUM



EEN GERMAN AND BELGIAN FORCES

THE REAL SUFFERERS IN A WAR ARE THE ONES LEFT AT HOME

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Spain
Portugal
Italy
Turkey
Japan
ASIA
EUROPE
AFRICA
NORTH AMERICA
SOUTH AMERICA
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
AUSTRALIA
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CHINESE EMPIRE
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Chile
Argentina
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Canada
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Hawaiian Is.
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Japan
New Zealand
Cape of Good Hope
Madagascar
Falkland Is. (Br.)
South Georgia (Br.)
Tristan da Cunha (Br.)
Ascension (Br.)
St. Helena (Br.)
Prince Edward Is. (Br.)
Crozet Is.
Kerguelen I. (Fr.)
Heard I.
St. Paul (Fr.)
Amsterdam I. (Fr.)
Chatham Is.
Auckland I.
Campbell I.
Macquarie I.
Norfolk I.
Lord Howe I.
Loyalty Is.
New Caledonia
Fiji Is.
Samoa Is.
Society Is.
Marquesas Is.
Low Archipelago
Easter I.
Juan Fernandez I. (Chile)
Galapagos Is. (Ec.)
Trinidad
Barbados
Jamaica
Cuba
Haiti
Porto Rico
Bermuda
Azores (Port.)
Canary Is. (Sp.)
Madeira (Port.)
Cape Verde Is. (Port.)
Fernando Po (Sp.)
Prince's I. (Port.)
St. Thomas I. (Port.)
Socotra I.
Zanzibar
Comoro Is.
Seychelles Is.
Mauritius
Reunion (Fr.)
Sandwich Group
South Orkney Is.
South Shetland Is.
Graham Land
Victoria Land
Ross Sea
Weddell Sea
Enderby Land
Wilkes Land
Adelie Land
Louis Philippe Land
Palmer Archipelago
Alexander I. Land
Graham Land
Coats Land
Ellsworth Land
Marie Byrd Land
Edward VII Land
Victoria Land
Ross Sea
Ross Ice Barrier
Scott's Farthest South
Amundsen's Farthest South
Shackleton's Farthest South
Nansen's Farthest North
Peary's Farthest North
Abruzzi's Farthest North
Duke of the Abruzzi's Farthest North
Wellman's Farthest North
Nobile's Farthest North
Amundsen's Farthest North
Byrd's Farthest North
Ellsworth

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NORTH AMERICA

United States.

President: Woodrow Wilson.
Area: Continental United States, 2,973,890 sq. mi. Population United States, 91,972,206.
Army: Authorized Peace Strength, 105,032.
Navy: Dreadnoughts and cruisers, 45; destroyers, submarines, etc., 103.

Canada (Part of British Empire).

Area: 3,603,910 sq. mi. Population, 7,206,643.
Active Militia: 73,900.

Total British Possessions in North and South America.

Area: 4,010,914. Population, 10,096,863.

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REIGNING MONARCH: George V, King and Emperor.
AREA: 121,633 sq. mi. Population, 45,370,530.
ARMY: Peace footing, 399,000; total strength, 730,000: unorganized, but available, 2,000,000.
NAVY: Dreadnoughts and cruisers, 197; destroyers, submarines, and smaller craft, 488; men, 163,700.
AERIAL EQUIPMENT: Aeroplanes, 400; dirigibles, 9; hydroplanes, 10.
CITIES: London, capital, 4,521,685; Greater London, 7,251,358; Liverpool, 746,421; Manchester, 714,333; Birmingham, 525,833; Leeds, 445,550; Sheffield, 454,632.

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PRESIDENT IN OFFICE: Raymond Poincare.
AREA: 207,054 sq. mi. Population, 39,601,509.
ARMY (including Algeria and Tunis): Peace footing, 800,000; total strength, 1,380,000; unorganized but available, 1,000,000.
NAVY: Dreadnoughts and cruisers, 59; destroyers, submarines, and smaller craft, 381: men, 60,621.
AERIAL EQUIPMENT: Aeroplanes, 1,200; dirigibles, 30; hydroplanes, 20.
CITIES: Paris, capital, 2,888,110; Lyon, 523,796; Marseilles, 550,619; Bordeaux, 261,678.

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REIGNING MONARCH: William II, German Emperor and King of Prussia.
AREA: 208,780 sq. mi. Population, 64,925,993 (32,040,166 males).
ARMY: Peace footing, 800,985; total strength, 3,350,000. Unorganized, but available, 1,000,000.
NAVY: Dreadnoughts and cruisers, 97; destroyers, and smaller craft, 290; men, 176,783.
AERIAL EQUIPMENT: Aeroplanes, 1,000; dirigible, 40; hydroplanes, 14.
CITIES: Berlin, capital, 2,071,257; Hamburg, 931,035; Leipzig, 589,850; Munich, 596,467; Dresden, 548,308; Cologne, 516,527.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
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Belgrade
Sarajevo
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Venice
Genoa
Florence
Munich
Nuremberg
Frankfort
Stuttgart
Lemberg
Krakau
Czernowitz
Jassy
Debreczen
Temesvar
Agram
Mostar
Nish
Sofia
Ragusa
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Ungvar
Stryj
Drohobycz
Boryslaw
Sambor
Przemysl
Jaroslau
Tarnow
Rzeszow
Jaslo
Gorlice
Neu-Sandec
Nowy-Sandec
Biala
Bielitz
Teschen
Ostrau
Troppau
Jägerndorf
Freiwaldau
Neisse
Glatz
Braunau
Königgrätz
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Turnau
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Aussig
Teplitz
Brüx
Komotau
Eger
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Memmingen
Kempten
Lindau
Bregenz
Feldkirch
Bludenz
Landeck
Reutte
Kufstein
Rosenheim
Traunstein
Berchtesgaden
Reichenhall
Ischl
Hallstatt
Aussee
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Kassel
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Crefeld
Elberfeld
Barmen
Solingen
Remscheid
Hagen
Dortmund
Bochum
Essen
Duisburg
Mülheim
Oberhausen
Gelsenkirchen
Recklinghausen
Münster
Osnabrück
Bielefeld
Minden
Hanover
Brunswick
Magdeburg
Halberstadt
Quedlinburg
Aschersleben
Bernburg
Dessau
Wittenberg
Torgau
Leipzig
Halle
Merseburg
Naumburg
Weissenfels
Zeitz
Altenburg
Gera
Greiz
Plauen
Zwickau
Chemnitz
Freiberg
Dresden
Meissen
Riesa
Bautzen
Görlitz
Liegnitz
Breslau
Oels
Trebnitz
Brieg
Neisse
Ratibor
Kosel
Oppeln
Tarnowitz
Beuthen
Kattowitz
Myslowitz
Sosnowitz
Dombrowa
Czenstochowa
Petrikau
Radom
Kielce
Sandomir
Tarnobrzeg
Lublin
Kalisch
Lodz
Pabianice
Turek
Konin
Gnesen
Inowrazlaw
Bromberg
Thorn
Culm
Graudenz
Marienwerder
Dirschau
Danzig
Elbing
Braunsberg
Heilsberg
Allenstein
Neidenburg
Soldau
Mlawa
Plock
Strasburg
Lautenburg
Neumark
Rosenberg
Marienburg
Mohrungen
Preussisch-Eylau
Pillau
Königsberg
Tilsit
Memel
Insterburg
Gumbinnen
Goldap
Lyck
Johannisburg
Sensburg
Ortelsburg
Willenberg
Ostrolenka
Lomza
Grajewo
Suwalki
Augustowo
Kalwarya
Prienai
Kovno
Wilkomir
Ponevyez
Shavli
Mitau
Libau
Windau
Tukkum
Riga
Wenden
Wolmar
Dorpat
Werro
Pernau
Fellin
Reval
Narva
Pskov
Ostrov
Opochka
Dvinsk
Rezhitza
Lutzin
Polotsk
Vitebsk
Orsha
Mogilev
Bobruisk
Rogachev
Gomel
Mozyr
Pinsk
Kobrin
Brest-Litovsk
Bielsk
Grodno
Lida
Vilna
Oshmiana
Minsk
Slutsk
Nesvizh
Baranovichi
Novogrudok
Volkovysk
Slonim
Pruzhany
Kamenetz-Litovsk
Ivangorod
Warsaw
Praga
Modlin
Plock
Sochaczew
Skierniewice
Rawa
Tomaszow
Petrikau
Radom
Kielce
Opatow
Ostrowiec
Sandomir
Tarnobrzeg
Lublin
Chelm
Zamosc
Hrubieszow
Tomaszow
Belzec
Rawa-Ruska
Lemberg
Zolkiew
Sokal
Rawa-Ruska
Brody
Tarnopol
Zbaraz
Zaleszczyki
Kolomea
Stanislau
Halicz
Tarnopol
Brody
Dubno
Rovno
Kovel
Lutsk
Vladimir-Volynsk
Kamenetz-Litovsk
Brest-Litovsk
Pinsk
Kobrin
Slonim
Volkovys

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REIGNING MONARCH: Victor Emmanuel III, King.
AREA: 110,550 sq. mi. Population, 35,238,997.
ARMY: Peace footing, 304,672; total strength, 1,200,000. Unorganized, but available, 1,200,000.
NAVY: Dreadnoughts and cruisers, 34; destroyers, submarines, and smaller craft, 153; men, 33,095.
AERIAL EQUIPMENT: Aeroplanes, 200; dirigibles, 11; hydroplanes, 7.
CITIES: Rome, capital, 542,123; Naples, 678,031; Milan, 599,200; Genoa, 272,221.

EUROPE.
Scale of Statute Miles.
0 100 200 300 400 500
Kilometers.
0 100 200 300 400 500 600 700 800
Capitals of Countries :
Railroads : — Canals : —
Comparative Area.
PENN.
45,215 Square Miles.
Longitude West from Greenwich
Longitude East
ICELAND
Reykjavik
Akreyri
Hekla Vol.
Langanes
Cape Horn
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Norwegian Sea
Faroe Islands
Thorshavn
Shetland Islands
Mainland
Orkney Islands
Pentland Firth
Stromness
C. Wrath
Hebrides or Western Isles
Lewis
Inverness
Moray Firth
Rattray Head
Peterhead
Aberdeen
Dundee
Firth of Forth
Edinburgh
SCOTLAND
Glasgow
Greenock
Belfast
Londonderry
Donegal Bay
Sligo
IRELAND
Dublin
Limerick
Shannon
Valentia
Cork
Queenstown
Clear
St. George's Channel
Irish Sea
I. of Man
Liverpool
Manchester
Sheffield
Leeds
Hull
Newcastle
Sunderland
Middlesbrough
North Sea
GREAT BRITAIN
WALES
ENGLAND
London
The Wash
NETHERLANDS
The Hague
Amsterdam
Rotterdam
Utrecht
Arnhem
Hamburg
Berlin
GERMAN EMPIRE
Lands End
Scilly Is.
Plymouth
Dartmouth
Portland
Lizard Head
English Channel
Channel Is.
Pt. St. Matthieu
Brest
Morlaix
Nantes
Paris
Versailles
Rouen
Le Havre
Caen
Cherbourg
Dieppe
Calais
BELGIUM
Brussels
Antwerp
Ghent
Bruges
Ostend
Dunkirk
Lille
Metz
Strasbourg
Nancy
Bay of Biscay
Ile de Ré
Ile d'Oléron
Rochefort
La Rochelle
Bordeaux
Gironde
Biarritz
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
Geneva
Lyons
Marseilles
Toulon
Nice
Corsica
Bastia
Ajaccio
Bonifacio
AUSTRIA
Vienna
Munich
Stuttgart
Frankfort
Cologne
Coblentz
Mayence
Carlsruhe
Basle
Milan
Turin
Genoa
Parma
Modena
Florence
Leghorn
Pisa
Ancona
Rome
Naples
Gaeta
Capua
Sardinia
ITALY
Tyrrhenian Sea
Cagliari
Oristano
Iglesias
C. Carbonara
C. Teulada
Messina
Lipari Is.
Stromboli
Etna
Catania
Syracuse
Ionian Sea
Reggio
Sicily
Palermo
Trapani
Marsala
Girgenti
Pantelleria
C. Passero
Malta (Brit.)
Valetta
Malta Channel
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Gibraltar (Br.)
Ceuta (Sp.)
Strait of Gibraltar
Tangier
Tarifa
Algeciras
Cadiz
Seville
Xeres de la Frontera
Cape St. Vincent
Lisbon
Setubal
Oporto
Vigo
Pontevedra
Coruña
El Ferrol
C. Finisterre
Santander
Gijon
Oviedo
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
Madrid
Toledo
Badajoz
Evora
Guadalquivir
Guadiana
Sierra Morena
Granada
Jaen
Cordova
Murcia
Cartagena
Almeria
Malaga
Alicante
Valencia
Balearic Islands
Majorca
Minorca
Iviza
Formentera
C. de la Nao
Barcelona
Tarragona
Saragossa
Huesca
Pamplona
Bilbao
Burgos
Valladolid
Salamanca
Zamora
Leon
Palencia
Santander
Ferrol
Lugo
Orense
Braga
Coimbra
Aveiro
Figueira
Castello Branco
Portalegre
Santarem
Abrantes
Thomar
Setuval
Elvas
Beja
Mertola
Ayamonte
Huelva
Tangier
Tetuan
Ceuta
Alcazar
Fez
Rabat
Mazagan
Mogador
Morocco
MOROCCO
Mequinez
Melilla
Alboran Grap
Mostaganem
Oran
Algiers
Philippeville
Bougie
Bona
Bizerta
Tunis
Susa
Kairwan
Tebessa
Batna
Biskra
Constantine
Bida
Ori ansville
ALGERIA
TUNIS
AFRICA
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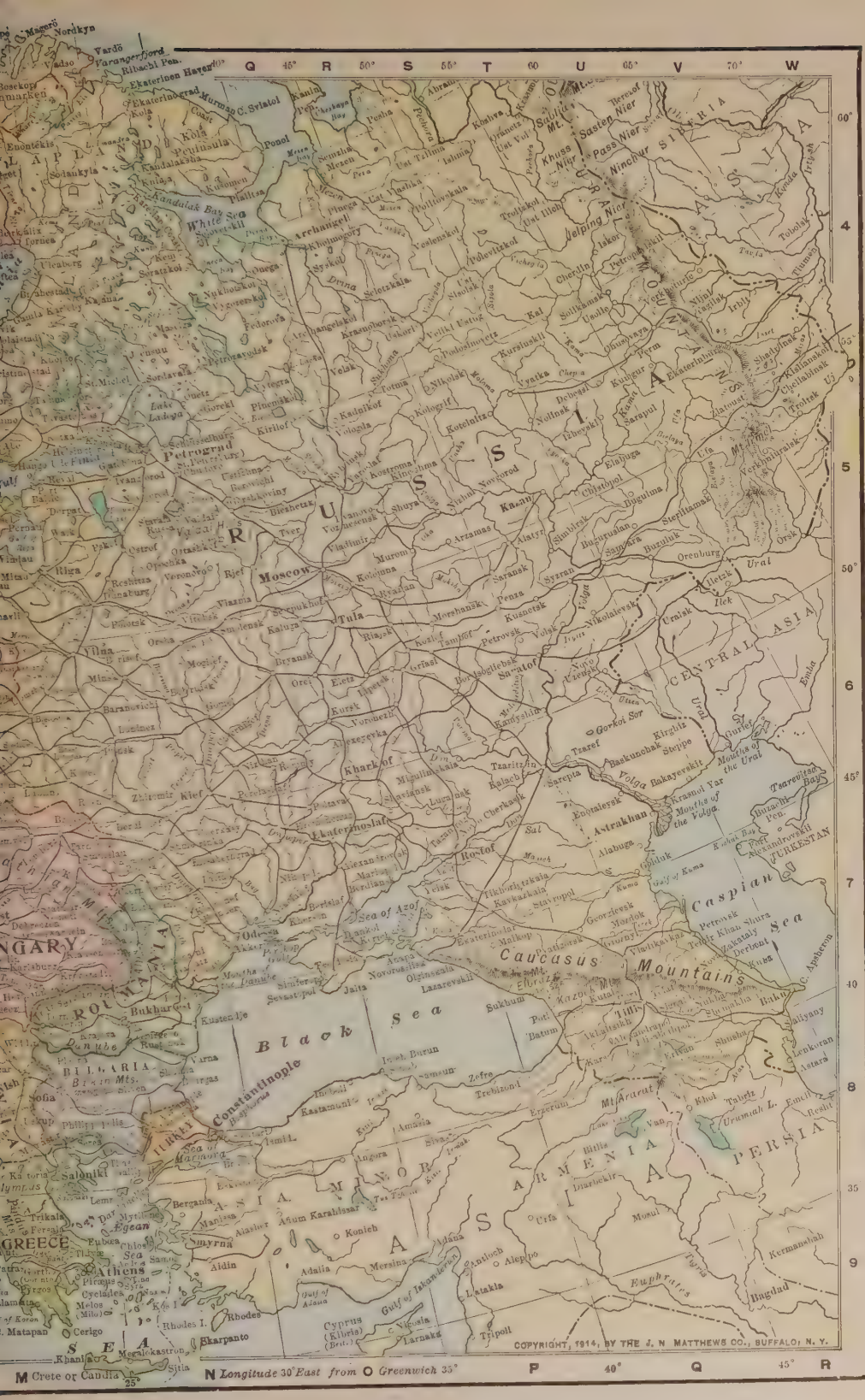
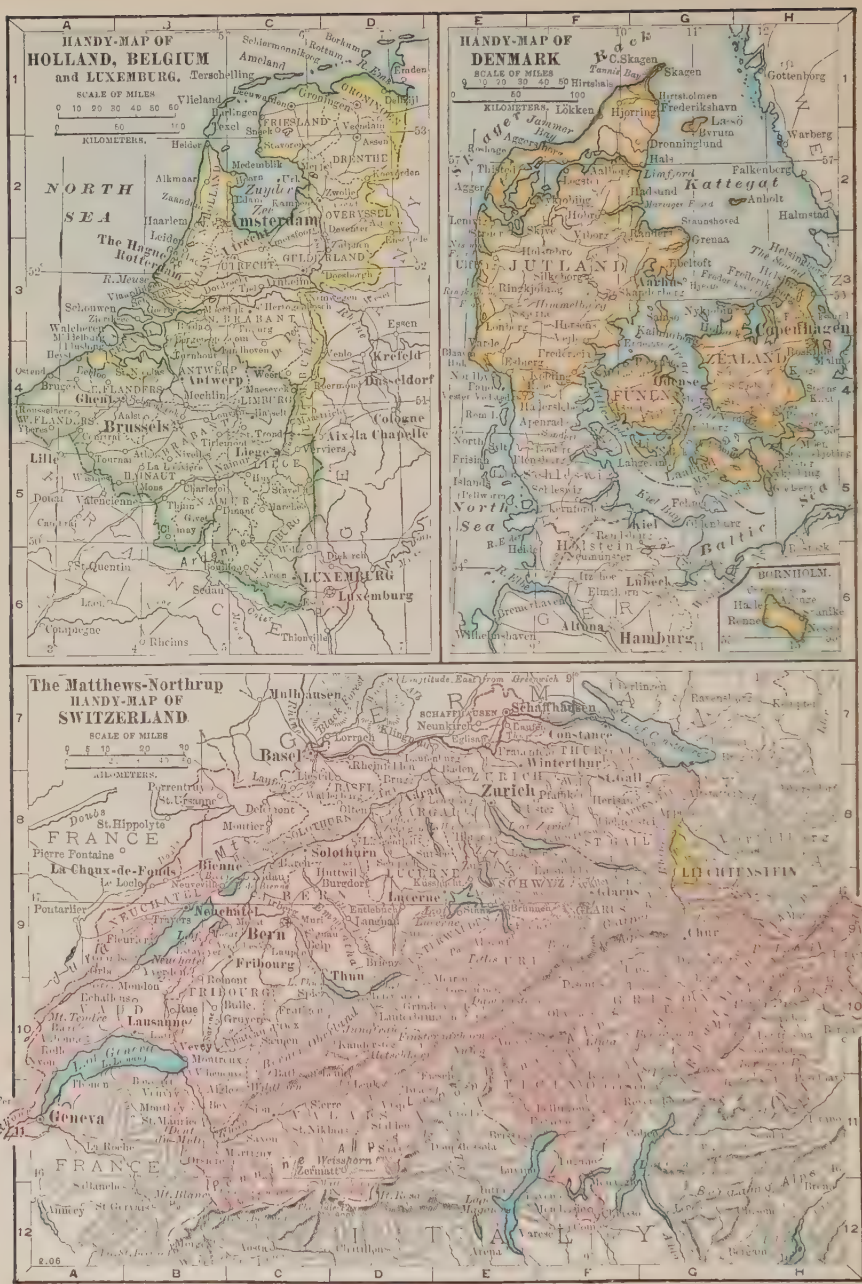

Q 45° R 50° S 55° T 60 U 65° V 70° W
60°
55°
50°
45°
40
35
Caucasus Mountains
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Sea of Azof
Moscow
Petrograd
Constantinople
Athens
Baghdad
Bukharest
Odessa
Astrakhan
Rostof
Kharkof
Ekaterinoslaf
Saratof
Samara
Orenburg
Ural
Volga
Don
Dnieper
Danube
Euphrates
Tigris
Caucasus
Mt. Ararat
Urumiah L.
Van
Aleppo
Damascus
Jerusalem
Tripoli
Latakia
Mosul
Kermanshah
Smyrna
Angora
Trebizond
Erzerum
Sevastopol
Jaita
Yalta
Batum
Baku
Derbent
Petrovsk
Astara
Lenkoran
Resht
Tabriz
Khoi
Bitlis
Diarbekir
Urfa
Adana
Mersina
Konieh
Aidin
Rhodes
Cyprus (Kibris) (Brit.)
Nicosia
Larnaka
Gulf of Iskanderun
Gulf of Adana
Gulf of Kuma
Gulf of Tagan
Tsaritzin
Astrakhan
Mouths of the Volga
Mouths of the Ural
Gorkot Sor
Kirghiz Steppe
Baskunchak
Volga Baksayerskit
Krasnoi Yar
Buzanbi Pen.
Port Alexandrovski
TURKESTAN
CENTRAL ASIA
PERSIA
ARMENIA
ASIA MINOR
TURKEY
GREECE
BULGARIA
RUMANIA
HUNGARY
LAPLAND
RUSSIA
Vardö
Varangerfjord
Ribachi Pen.
Ekaterinen Hafen
Murman
C. Sviatoi
Kola
Kola Peninsula
Kandalaksha
Kandalask Bay
White Sea
Archangel
Onega
Dvina
Petrozavodsk
Lake Ladoga
Lake Onega
Petrograd
Gorokhovetz
Kirillof
Kaluga
Tula
Riazk
Orel
Kursk
Voronezh
Tambof
Petrovsk
Volsk
Kuznetsk
Penza
Syzran
Simbirsk
Samara
Buguruslan
Buguruslan
Orenburg
Uralsk
Ilek
Aktyrsk
Kazan
Nizhni Novgorod
Vladimir
Murom
Arzamas
Moscow
Tver
Smolensk
Viazma
Bryansk
Orel
Kursk
Riga
Reshitza
Pinsk
Vilna
Minsk
Grodno
Warsaw
Brest
Lemberg
Jassy
Kishenef
Galatz
Ismail
Bender
Akkerman
Nikolaief
Kherson
Ekaterinoslaf
Kharkof
Poltava
Kief
Zhitomir
Berdichef
Proskurof
Tarnopol
Czernowitz
Kolomea
Stanislau
Przemysl
Lemberg
Cracow
Lodz
Petrikof
Kalisch
Posen
Breslau
Thorn
Danzig
Konigsberg
Memel
Libau
Mitau
Dorpat
Pskof
Ostrof
Opochka
Vitebsk
Smolensk
Mogilef
Gomel
Chernigof
Novgorod Seversk
Sumy
Kursk
Voronezh
Tambof
Morshansk
Penza
Kuznetsk
Petrovsk
Volsk
Tsaritzin
Kalach
Sarepta
Elton Lake
Astrakhan
Baskunchak
Volga Baksayerskit
Krasnoi Yar
Mouths of the Volga
Mouths of the Ural
Gorkot Sor
Kirghiz Steppe
Buzanbi Pen.
Port Alexandrovski
Tashkend
Orsk
Orenburg
Ural
Ilek
Uralsk
Aktyrsk
Buguruslan
Samara
Simbirsk
Stavropol
Georgievsk
Mozdok
Vladikavkaz
Petrovsk
Tchir Khan Shura
Vakatali
Derbent
Kuba
Baku
Lenkoran
Astara
Resht
Tabriz
Khoi
Urumiah L.
Van
Bitlis
Diarbekir
Urfa
Mosul
Kermanshah
Bagdad
Aleppo
Damascus
Jerusalem
Tripoli
Latakia
Antioch
Adana
Mersina
Konieh
Angora
Aidin
Smyrna
Adalia
Rhodes
Cyprus (Kibris) (Brit.)
Nicosia
Larnaka
Gulf of Iskanderun
Gulf of Adana
Gulf of Kuma
Gulf of Tagan
Sea of Azof
Black Sea
Constantinople
Bosphorus
Dardanelles
Sea of Marmora
Egean Sea
Ionian Sea
Crete or Candia
Skarpanto
Khania
Sitia
Cerigo
Matapan
Athens
Piraeus
Cyclades
Melos (Milo)
Rhodes I.
Saloniki
Mt. Olympus
Mt. Athos
Mt. Pelion
Mt. Ossa
Mt. Parnassus
Mt. Pindus
Mt. Rhodope
Mt. Balkan
Sofia
Philippopolis
Varna
Burgas
Rustchuk
Bukharest
Danube
Pruth
Dniester
Carpathian Mts.
Transylvanian Alps
Iron Gate
Belgrade
Semlin
Agram
Fiume
Trieste
Venice
Trent
Innsbruck
Munich
Vienna
Prague
Dresden
Berlin
Stettin
Danzig
Konigsberg
Memel
Libau
Mitau



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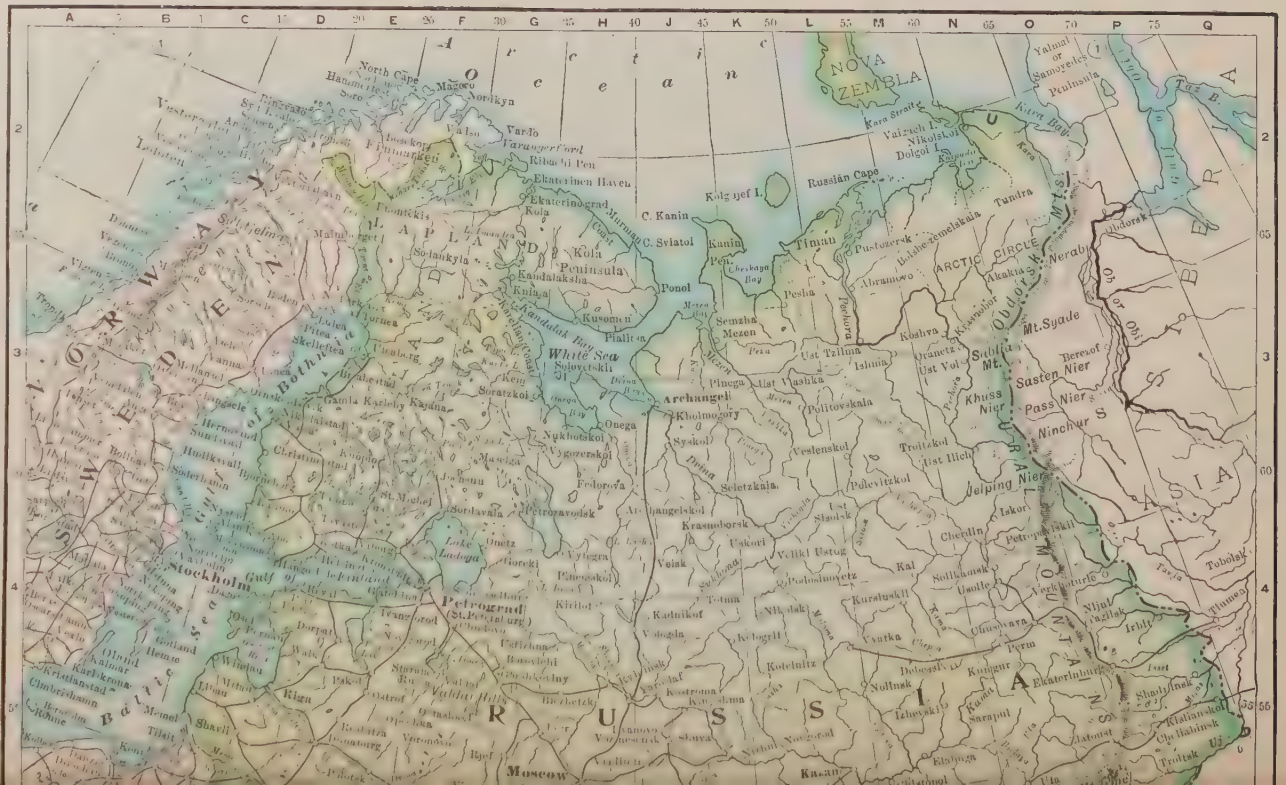
Country	Reigning Monarch	Area Sq. Mi.	Population	Army	Navy	Cities	
						Name	Pop.
Holland	Queen Wilhelmina	12,648	6,114,302	P. 22,955 T. 125,000	B. 14 D. 62	The Hague, Cap. Amsterdam Rotterdam	294,693 587,876 446,897
Belgium	King Albert	11,373	7,571,387	P. 47,603 T. 275,000	None	Brussels, Cap. Antwerp Liege	663,647 312,884 170,634
Denmark	King Christian X	15,585	2,775,076	P. 13,720 T. 50,000	D. 34	Copenhagen, Cap. Aarhuus	462,163 61,755
Switzerland . .	President, Col. Dr. A. Hoffmann	15,976	3,781,430	P. 22,300 T. 275,000	None	Bern, Cap. Zurich Basel	85,264 189,088 131,914
Luxemburg . . .	Grand-duchess Marie-Adelaide	998	259,891	T. 5,000	None	Luxemburg, Cap.	20,848

P.— Peace Footing. T.— Total Strength. B.— Battleships and Cruisers. D.— Destroyers, Submarines, etc.

Country	Reigning Monarch	Area Sq. Mi.	Population	Army	Navy	Cities	
						Name	Pop.
Servia	King Peter I	33,891	4,547,992	P. 175,000 T. 270,000	None	Belgrade, Cap. Nish	90,890 24,949
Rumania	King Charles I	53,489	7,516,418	P. 103,460 T. 290,000	B. 1 D. 26	Bucharest, Cap. Jassy	338,109 75,882
Bulgaria	King Ferdinand	43,305	4,467,006	P. 60,000 T. 300,000	D. 17	Sofia, Cap. Philippopolis	102,812 47,981
Montenegro	King Nicholas I	5,603	516,000	T. 40,000	None	Cettinje, Cap. Podgoritza	4,500 10,000
Greece	King Constantine I	41,933	4,363,000	P. 50,000 T. 250,000	B. 5 D 28	Athens, Cap. Piraeus	167,479 73,579
Turkish Empire	Sultan Mohammed V	710,224	21,273,900	P. 230,000	B. 7 D. 20	Constantinople, cap Adrianople	1,200,000 83,000

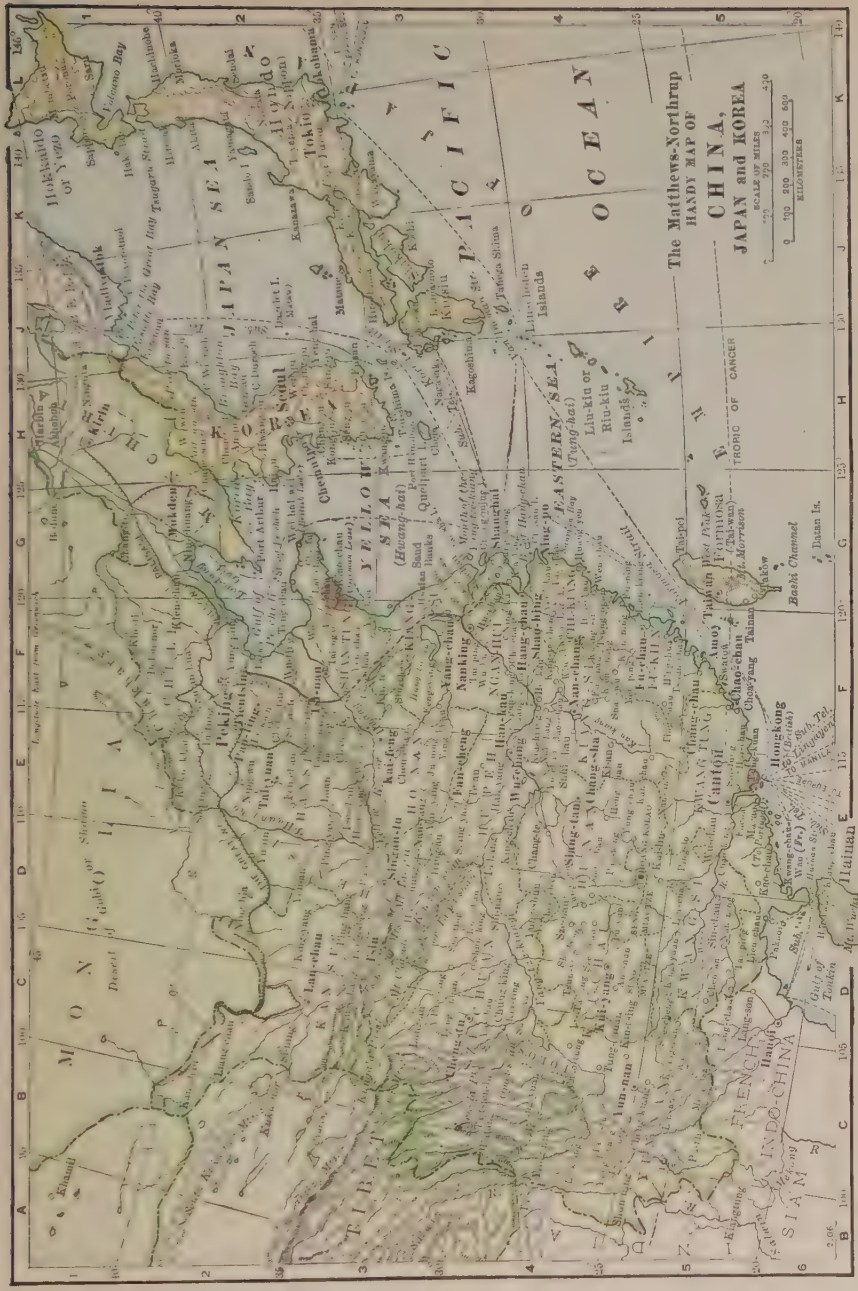
P.— Peace Footing. T.— Total Strength. B.— Battleships and Cruisers. D.— Destroyers, Submarines, etc.


A
Б
C
D
E
F
G
H
J
K
L
M
N
O
P
Q
Arctic Ocean
NOVA ZEMBLA
Kara Strait
Yalmal or Samoyedes Peninsula
Kara Sea
Russian Cape
Kolguef I.
Vaigatch I.
Nikolskoi
Dolgoi I.
TUNDRA
SIBERIA
North Cape
Magero
Nordkyn
Varanger Fjord
Varlo
Vardo
Ekaterinen Haven
Ekaterinograd
Kola
C. Kanin
C. Sviatoi
Kanin
Pen
Cheshaga Bay
Himan
Pustozersk
Tundra
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Obdorsk
Nerabi
Obdorsk Mts.
Ob or Obi
Mt. Syadle
Berezof
Sasten Nier
Pass Nier
Ninchur
Khuss Nier
Jelping Nier
Iakor
Petropavlovskoi
Tobolsk
Irbit
Perm
Ekaterinburg
Sholymsk
Klatinsk
Chebakinsk
Troitsk
Ufa
Kazan
Moscow
Petrograd
(St. Petersburg)
Stockholm
Gulf of Bothnia
Baltic Sea
Gulf of Finland
Aland Is.
Gotland
Bornholm
Christiansand
Christiania
Christiansund
Trondhjem
Bodo
Mosjoen
Hernosand
Sundsvall
Gefle
Upsala
Orebro
Wisby
Karlskrona
Kristianstad
Ystad
Malmo
Helsingfors
Abo
Wasa
Uleaborg
Tornea
Haparanda
Pitea
Skellefteo
Lulea
Gamla Karleby
Kajana
Kuusamo
Pialitsa
Kandalaksha
Kuitsa
Kandalaksha Bay
Kandalaksha Gulf
Kem
Soratzkoi
Onega
Nukhotskoi
Vygoverskoi
Archangel
Kholmogory
Solovetzkoi Is.
White Sea
Mezen
Semzha
Pesha
Pesa
Ponoi
Pinega
Ust Pinega
Ust Vashka
Ust Tzilma
Islania
Ust Volo
Oranetz
Ust Ilich
Troitzkoi
Vestenskoi
Politovskaia
Polevitzkoi
Sclietzkaia
Dvina
Mezen
Pechora
Kosliva
Solikamsk
Mt.
Arkangelskoi
Krasnoborsk
Uskuri
Veliki Ustug
Veisk
Kotlas
Vyatka
Kama
Kai
Sotlikmsk
Ufa
Kirillof
Kadnikof
Vologda
Kologrif
Totma
Vytegra
Lake Onega
Lake Ladoga
Petrozavodsk
Sordavala
Fellorova
Kem
Swedish Lapland
Finnish Lapland
Norwegian Lapland
Russian Lapland
Sweden
Norway
Finland
Russia
Siberia
Asia

REIGNING SOVEREIGN, Nicholas II, Emperor of All the Russias.
AREA, IN EUROPE: 2,218,404 sq. mi. Empire, 8,764,586 sq. mi. Population, in Europe, 150,755,000. Empire, 171,059,900.
ARMY: Peace footing, in Europe, 1,550,000. Empire, 1,850,000; total strength, 5,000,000. Unorganized, but available, 5,200,000.
NAVY: Dreadnoughts and cruisers, 48 in Baltic and Black Sea fleets. Destroyers, submarines, and smaller craft, 135; men, 52,463.
AERIAL EQUIPMENT: Aeroplanes, 800; dirigibles, 18; hydroplanes, 12.
CITIES: Petrograd capital, 2,018,596; Moscow, 1,617,157; Poland, incorporated with Russia, 1868. Area, 49,018 sq. mi. Population, 12,776,100. Government administered by governor-general, who has supreme control in civil and military affairs.

AFRICA

	British	Germany	French
Area	2,135,147	931,460	1,184,401
Population	37,990,222	11,428,429	25,681,243


The Matthews-Northrup
HANDY MAP OF
CHINA,
JAPAN and KOREA
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
KILOMETERS
JAPAN SEA
PACIFIC OCEAN
EASTERN SEA
(Hwang-hai)
YELLOW SEA
(Hwang-hai)
TROPIC OF CANCER
Hokkaido or Yezo
Honshiu
Kiushiu
Shikoku
Tokio
Seoul
Pekin
Nanking
Hankau
Hong-kong
Canton
Taihoku
Formosa
Luzon
Philippine Islands
Liu-kiu or Riu-kiu Islands
Bashi Channel
Batan Is.
Mt. Morrison
Mt. Hauyuh
Mt. Ilwuh
Mt. Tsing
Mt. Tsiu
Mt. Tsiuh
Mt. Tsiuh
Mt. Tsiuh

AUSTRALIA
(Part of British Empire)

AREA: 2,974,581 sq. mi. Population, 4,836,625.
MILITIA: 173,967.

NEW ZEALAND
(Part of British Empire)

AREA: 103,861 sq. mi. Population, 1,128,160.
MILITIA about 30,000.

TOTAL BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN OCEANICA—AREA: 3,191,773 sq. mi. Population, 6,551,513.

INDIA AND OTHER BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN ASIA—AREA: 1,969,496 sq. mi. Population, 323,865,929.

CHAPTER I

THE GREAT EUROPEAN WAR OF 1914

The Beginning of the Greatest War in the History of the World, Involving Five of the Greatest Nations of Europe, Great Britain, Germany, France, Austria-Hungary and Russia and the Smaller Nations of Belgium, Servia and Montenegro, Followed the Shots of an Assassin Who Killed the Heir to the Throne of Austria-Hungary. A Summary of the Events that Preceded the Greatest of all International Conflicts.

THE shots fired by a Herzogovinan student in the city of Serajeve, Bosnia, on June 28, 1914, which killed the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the crown of Austria-Hungary, and his wife the Duchess of Hohenberg, were echoed by the roaring guns of five of the most powerful nations of Europe.

The "shot heard 'round the world" in the American revolution was fired by a patriot; the shot heard 'round the world in the Great European war of 1914 was fired by an assassin.

Actually, the greatest war the world had ever known, which at the beginning involved Austria-Hungary, Servia, Russia, Germany, France and England, and later Japan in

the order named began on July 27, 1914, when Austria-Hungary invaded Servia, although Austria-Hungary did not declare war upon the little Servian state until the following day.

The act of the Herzogivanan assassin and his bomb-throwing confederate was not the cause of the war; it was the preliminary overt act which, so to speak, touched the match to the European powder barrel.

The causes had been multiplying for years and are to be found in the racial hatreds, the commercial rivalries, the subjugation of the weak by the strong, the theft of territory, the pride and arrogance of autocracy and the bitter memories of other wars.

THE BALANCE OF POWER IN EUROPE

The peace of Europe for a half century has depended upon the proper maintenance of the balance of power, so that no one nation or combination of nations should become so powerful that it or they could dominate the others. To maintain this balance of power among peoples naturally antagonistic the nations of Europe have for years been building up the most powerful armies and navies the world has ever known until the burden of war taxes has well nigh broken the backs of the people and has been one reason for the large emigration to America of thousands who found the burden greater than they could bear.

But while these monster preparations for war have been going on the statesmen of the several countries have sought to prevent or at least to delay armed conflict by alliances, understandings, treaties and all the arts of diplomacy.

So enormous and powerful were the great war machines which grew in size and cost every year that they became in themselves a sort of guarantee of peace. It seemed incredible that nations so armed should risk annihilation by such powerful engines of destruction. The mere thought of a European war to the average person became a grotesque absurdity. The alliances to preserve the balance of power seemed too well adjusted, the means of warfare too destructive.

To aid in the preservation of the balance of power little states lying between the possessions of the great powers were permitted to retain their independence of the great powers which guaranteed their neutrality, thus relieving tension and friction along the boundaries of the great states. All the safeguards of peace seemed to have been taken.

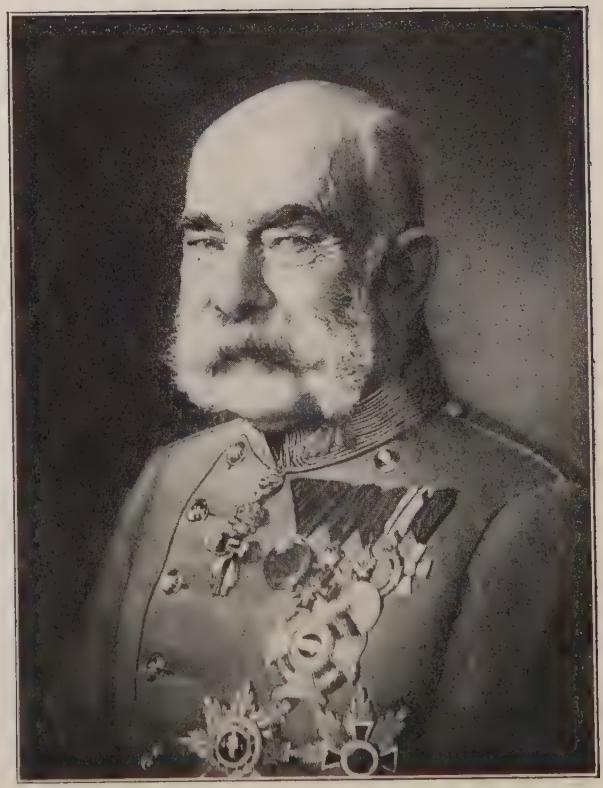
Yet when the first blast of war sounded treaties and alliances were in some cases disregarded and the neutrality of the so-called little "buffer" states was violated.

CAUSE OF THE ASSASSINATION

In considering the causes of the Great European war of 1914, the greatest in the history of the world, and the direct acts leading up to hostilities it is necessary to recall that in 1909 Austria seized from Turkey the territory of Bosnia and Herzogovina, inhabited by Serbs, whose dream had been to unite with Servia in a Servian empire and who resented the rule of Austria. It was this resentment together with pride of race that led the young Serb, Prinzip, to assassinate the heir to the Austrian throne.

Despite this crime against his family and throne it was

H. M. KING OF SERVIA



FRANCIS JOSEPH, EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA

WILLIAM II, EMPEROR OF GERMANY

CZAR NICHOLAS OF RUSSIA

not believed that the aged Emperor of Austria-Hungary, Francis Joseph, then in his eighty-fourth year, would retaliate upon the Servian nation, although it was made clear that the plot of the assassin and his accomplice was hatched in Servia. The history of the world, however, shows that some of its greatest wars have directly resulted from individual acts far less important and malicious than this.

On July 23, following the assassination of his nephew and heir, the government of the venerable Emperor Franz Joseph issued an ultimatum to the Servian government demanding guarantee of reforms calculated to protect Austria-Hungary from alleged Servian plotting and to preclude a like tragedy.

The Servian reply granted all points of the ultimatum except one and that was not rejected but left open for further negotiations.

Austria-Hungary's reply was that the Servian reply was unsatisfactory. On the same day shots were exchanged between the two nations across the Danube River near Belgrade, the Servian capital.

RUSSIA BEGINS MOBILIZATION

Servia's one dependence was upon Russia, which like Austria had an enormous Serb population. Almost coincident with the exchange of notes between the two governments Russia began to mobilize her enormous army, alleging her action to be but a precautionary measure.

Germany, which with Austria and Italy composed the Triple Alliance, supported Austria-Hungary and demanded of Russia that she cease mobilizing her army.

Prior to this, however, Great Britain, through her foreign minister, Sir Edward Grey, proposed an international peace conference, France and Italy agreeing, but Germany holding off.

Russia having continued her mobilization beyond the twenty-four hours named in Germany's ultimatum; Germany on August 1st declared war on Russia, and on the same day France and Germany began mobilizing their forces.

Russia and France and Great Britain constituted what is known as the Triple Entente, that is to say, these three nations had a verbal understanding, a sort of "gentlemen's agreement" as to what they would do in the event their interests or safety were menaced, whereas in the Triple Alliance the terms were signed and sealed and had the force and effect of a written contract.

Although Germany's declaration of war was against Russia the mobilization of three of her armies was directed against Russia's long time ally, France, and on the following day the forward movement upon her ancient foe of the Franco-Prussian War began, breaking a peace which had existed for nearly forty-three years between them. On the same day Russia invaded Germany.

Between Germany and France lay the neutral little kingdom of Belgium, the neutrality of which had been guaranteed by the Treaty of London in 1867, to which Germany and Great Britain were both signatories.

By marching her armies straight across Belgium it would have been possible for Germany to reach the French frontier before the French army could arrive there to defend.

GERMANY INVADED BELGIUM

Basing her action upon military necessity Germany invaded Belgium—a violation of the neutrality treaty. It is only fair and impartial to state, however, that Germany did not expect Belgium to offer any opposition to this movement and offered to reimburse Belgium for any damage she might sustain. The German chancellor freely and publicly acknowledged that the invasion of the German troops was a violation of Belgium's neutrality, but declared that the menace was so great that she was justified.

Belgium not only rejected Germany's offer, but appealed to Great Britain and at the same time prepared to resist the invasion with force.

Great Britain's response was a declaration to defend both France and Belgium and on August 4th a declaration of war was issued against Germany by Great Britain and began the mobilization of her army for the purpose of sending an expeditionary force to join the French and Belgians. Germany on the same day declared war against Great Britain.

Italy, the third member of the Triple Alliance, was called upon by Germany and Austria-Hungary to join forces with them, but instead of doing so declared that she would remain neutral, alleging that the terms of the alliance only required her to aid her allies in a war of defense, whereas in this war she considered them the aggressors.

GREATEST WAR OPENS

Under these conditions the greatest war in the history of the world was in full blast by August 5th, upon which date

the first of the three enormous armies which Germany sent against France crossed the Belgian frontier in force and began an attack upon the forts at Liege where the Belgians made a desperate and brilliant defense.

In the meantime Austrian warships were battering the deserted Servian capital of Belgrade and Austrian troops, facing the hail of Servian shells and bullets, were forcing a passage of the Drina and Save rivers.

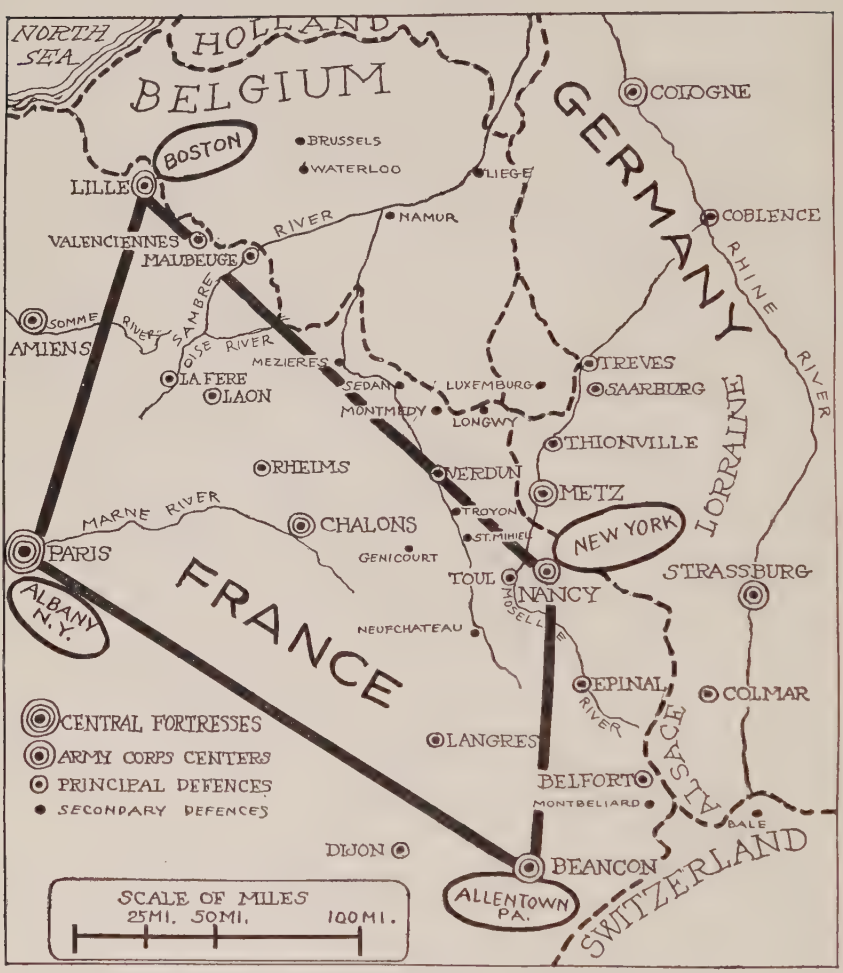
The Russian army, like a huge bear, was moving slowly but steadily upon the frontiers of its enemies.

The activities of the powerful navies of Great Britain, Germany and France were screened in mystery.

With the most powerful nations at war even the neutral nations summoned their fighting men to the colors to defend, if need be, their frontiers.

Europe trembled beneath the feet of twenty millions of men under arms.

The war which had figured only in the imagination of writers, the war which the world had dreaded, the inconceivable war which enveloped a continent and was to remake the map of Europe and be felt to the uttermost ends of the earth was a reality.



RELATIONS OF DISTANCES, COMPARED TO AMERICAN CITIES

CHAPTER II

THE ASSASSINATION THAT STARTED THE WAR

Archduke Francis Ferdinand, Heir to Austrian Throne, and His Wife, the Duchess of Hohenberg, Slain in Bosnia—First Attempt on Their Lives with a Bomb—History of Their Courtship and Marriage—Assassins Involve High Servian Officials.

ARCHDUKE FRANCIS FERDINAND, the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, journeyed to Bosnia on a martial errand but on a peaceful mission. Created head of the army, he went there to represent Francis Joseph, Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, at the grand manoeuvres. It was his first official visit to Bosnia and he paid for it with his life. Foiled in their first attempt to slay him and his wife, the Duchess of Hohenberg, the band of Servian assassins were successful in the second effort. Where a bomb failed to put an end to the heir to the Austrian throne a bullet was successful.

On the morning of June 28 the archduke and his wife decided to attend a reception at the town hall in Sarajevo. Many fetes had been arranged in their honor and to show that the Austrians had a kindly feeling toward the people of

the annexed provinces, the archduke and duchess planned to mingle freely with the Bosnians at entertainments.

As Archduke Francis Ferdinand and the duchess were driving to the town hall a bomb was thrown at their motor car. Only the great presence of mind of the archduke saved their lives then. The deadly missile was thrown as the automobile was going ahead at a snail's pace and the archduke warded it off with his arm. The dynamite did not explode until after the archduke's car had passed. Then there was a crash and the occupants of the following car were injured. They were Count von Boos-Waldeck and Colonel Merizzi, the archduke's aide-de-camp. Neither was seriously hurt. Six persons in the crowd that lined the street were also injured.

THE DOUBLE ASSASSINATION

It was when the archduke was going to the hospital to see how his aide-de-camp was recovering from the effects of the explosion that he lost his life. The assassin, a student of eighteen, named Gavrio Prinzip, stationed himself in the front rank of a cheering crowd, at a point on the route from the town hall to the palace, and, as the royal automobile slowed down at a turning, he opened fire with an automatic pistol, hitting the archduke in the face as he sought to protect his consort.

As he fell back in the seat the murderer turned his weapon on the duchess, who sank across her husband's knees with bullets through her throat and abdomen.

Thus, for the second time, the aged Emperor Francis Joseph, then in his eighty-fifth year, was robbed in tragic

fashion of an heir, and the House of Hapsburg sustained one more crushing blow in its unhappy history.

The two attempts evidently were carefully planned. The archduke and his consort arrived at Sarajevo in the morning from Ilidza, a little seaside resort where they had spent a brief holiday. The first attempt against the life of the archduke was made as he was about to leave the girls' high school, where he made a brief inspection. The archduke remained calm throughout this trying ordeal. He stopped his car to inquire as to the injuries of Count von Boos-Waldeck and Colonel Merizzo. After giving orders that the injured be properly attended, he drove on to the town hall, where the mayor proceeded to read his address of welcome.

The archduke, however, interrupted the proceedings to exclaim:

"What is the good of your speeches? I come to Sarajevo on a visit and I get bombs thrown at me. It is outrageous!" Then, after a pause, he said: "Now you may speak."

The reception ceremony was overshadowed by the bomb explosion, and his royal highness was still indignant when the time came to leave. The duchess endeavored to restrain her husband from getting into the automobile again, but the governor of Bosnia, General Potiorek, said:

"It's all over now. We have not got more than one murderer in Sarajevo!"

A SECOND BOMB THROWN

At this the archduke decided to enter the car again. As the machine proceeded along the Appel Quay another bomb

SERBS MARCHING TO THE FRONT

GRAND DUKE OF BADEN

KING OF SAXONY

was thrown. It failed to explode, whereupon the assassin drew an automatic pistol and fired a fusillade. The first bullet hit the archduke in the neck, the second in the leg and the third struck the duchess in the abdomen.

Governor Potiorek, who was seated in the royal car, was covered with blood as the archduke and the duchess sank on the floor. He had them conveyed to his official residence, but they were past aid, and after receiving the last sacrament the duchess expired, the archduke breathing his last a few minutes later.

Spectators asserted that the archduke saw the glint of the automatic pistol as the assassin approached, and endeavored to shield the duchess. The fury of the crowds of peasantry, all decked out in gala costume to welcome their prince, knew no bounds. They tried to tear the assassin to pieces, and he was rescued with difficulty by the police, with his clothes almost torn from his back.

The assassin was a native of Herzegovina, and his fellow conspirator who threw the bomb was a compositor named Nedeljo Gabrinovics, twenty-one, who also came from Herzegovina. When interrogated by the police they seemed proud of their exploits. Both had spent some time in Belgrade, where Gabrinovics asserted he had obtained the bomb from an anarchist, whose name he did not know. He said he had been employed in the government printing works. He made no concealment of his sympathy with the King of Servia.

Spectators of the death scene state that the Duchess of Hohenberg did not know she was seriously wounded, and, while dying of internal hemorrhage, supported her husband

and sought to comfort him, while streams of blood flowed from his wound.

The day, which began with bands playing, the streets decked in bunting and the inhabitants in festive mood, ended in somber tragedy. The gay flags were soon torn down, and in their place were hung crape and festoons of black cloth. The bright costumes of the peasantry were exchanged for robes of mourning, and a silence of stunned consternation hung over the city, except where infuriated bands of students threatened the residences of Servians.

STORY OF A ROYAL ROMANCE

Meanwhile the bodies of the heir to the Austrian throne and his wife were lying in state with a sad faced stream of mourners passing before the biers. That morning most of them had seen the couple pulsating with life and the joy of living either at the high school on their trip of inspection or as they drove through the crowded streets. Many had seen the first attempt on their lives; many others had seen the successful attempt of the young student. All had heard of the devotion of the couple; how the archduke had tried to shield the duchess and how she thought only of him in her dying moments.

Theirs had been a love match. In the circles of royalty the Duchess of Hohenberg was a Cinderella transformed by the magic wand of love to the highest grandeur and magnificence. She appealed with an especial romantic interest to Americans. She was a girl of good birth, as we would consider it, although not good enough to mate with royalty, as royalty thought. She was modest, unsophisticated and care-

fully educated for the conventional life of the Austrian court—the most conventional in Europe, with the exception of that of Spain, upon which it is modelled.

A more unlikely place than either court could scarcely be found for such a girl to make an advantageous marriage, or a more barren spot for the growth of the woodland rose of unworldly love. The differences in rank among the nobility themselves create barriers well nigh impassable for marriage unless accompanied by such extraordinary wealth that one might call it colossal. And royal blood is exalted with a mediaeval reverence long since dead and gone elsewhere in Europe.

Sophie von Chotek, who became the Duchess of Hohenberg, was not an actress nor a prima donna whom the jeunesse dore crowned queen of their night-life and then yielded to the prince whose superior position demanded their submission. She was not a Pompadour, a Du Barry or a Nell Gwyn, inveigling with the fascinations of the experienced courtesan a worn-out roue willing to sell his crown for the sensations of a new pleasure.

AN OLD-FASHIONED LOVE STORY

When Archduke Francis Ferdinand fell in love with her she was not beautiful and she was not rich. A motherless girl at eighteen, she had been since that time earning her living in an exacting position as companion, or hofdame, in the household of royalty—about the only conventional way open to women of good birth who do not wish to take the veil.

But at the age of thirty-two she made one of the most

brilliant marriages in all history and became as much the legal wife of the future ruler of the Dual Monarchy as was possible with the rites of the Catholic Church and the decrees of the Imperial Parliament. The marriage could not have been more free from sordid considerations if both she and her husband had been simple peasant lovers. And on the other hand, the wife's position could not have been legally more secure if she had been born an archduchess.

It was a sweet old-fashioned love story, such as we are accustomed to think comes true only in our own democratic freedom.

This gentle Bohemian girl upset all the preconceived ideas of the marriages of princes, with their pompous family councils to weigh the microscopic differences in royal lineage and inherited fortune, and their solemn pourparlers of statesmen to use the alliance to strengthen the state against its enemies and provide successors upon its throne. And she upset the plans and the ideas of the Austrian Emperor and his cabinet, with the archdukes and archduchesses, just about one hundred strong, fighting them all and holding her lover true to his pledge through a period of twelve long years before he could make her his wife.

During those twelve years she exhibited talents for statecraft and diplomacy of the highest order. After the marriage, no one at the Austrian court or any other court in Europe was foolish enough to speculate about Austria's future without taking into account the Duchess of Hohenberg. But the most far-seeing statesmen were not afraid that she would attempt to become Empress of Austria or even Queen of Hungary. She was far too wise.

Hardly had the last Bosnian peasant viewed the bodies

of the archduke and his wife than unexpected developments came to light; the developments that later shook the civilized world and were responsible for plunging practically all Europe into a titanic struggle.

Questioned by the police, Prinzip and his confederate involved high Servian officials in the plot to slay Francis Ferdinand and his duchess. Prinzip, a mere boy, said he had been reading anarchist books and periodicals from the time he was fourteen years old. He gloried in his deed, admitting his guilt and saying he felt no compunction for his act.

CITIES FIRST ATTACKED BY THE GERMAN ARMY

CHAPTER III

AUSTRIA DECLARES WAR ON SERVIA

High Feeling Against Servia in Austria—Demand for Satisfaction—Servia's Reply—Austria Declares War on Servia—Efforts to Settle Differences by European Mediation—Emperor Francis Joseph Explains Austria's Attitude Toward Servia—The Match Touched to the European Powder Barrel.

AUSTRIA and Hungary seethed with feeling following the assassination of the archduke and his wife. It was only a question of days when Emperor Francis Joseph demanded a heavy reckoning.

Austria, knowing many of the details of the assassination plot and guessing at others, sent an ultimatum to Servia on Thursday, July 23rd, to which an answer was demanded in forty-eight hours. The note, which threw Belgrade into a state bordering on panic, reviewed the relations with Servia since 1909 and complained that, although the Servian government promised loyalty to the Austro-Hungarian government, it had failed to suppress subversive movements and agitations by the newspapers, and that this tolerance had incited the Servian people to hatred of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy and contempt for its institutions.

"This," said the note, "culminated in the Sarajevo assassinations, which are proved by depositions and confessions of the perpetrators to have been hatched at Belgrade, the arms and explosives having been supplied by the connivance of Servian officers and functionaries.

"The Austro-Hungarian government is unable longer to pursue an attitude of forbearance, and sees the duty imposed upon it of putting an end to the intrigues which form a perpetual menace to the monarchy's tranquillity. It therefore demands from the Servian government formal assurance that it condemns the dangerous propaganda whose aim is to detach from the monarchy a portion of its territory, and also that the Servian government shall no longer permit these machinations and this criminal, perverse propaganda."

The note then gave the terms of a long formal declaration which the Servian government was required to publish in its official journal on the front page, condemning the subversive propaganda, deploring the fatal consequences of this, regretting the participation of Servian officers in this propaganda, repudiating any further interference with Austro-Hungarian interests and warning all Servian officers and functionaries and the whole Servian population that rigorous proceedings would be taken in the future against any persons guilty of such machinations.

This declaration should also be officially proclaimed to the Servian army and the Servian courts should undertake to suppress subversive publications and dissolve immediately the Pan-Servian society styled "Narodna Odbrana," confiscating all its means of carrying on a propaganda and

suppress all similar societies having anti-Austrian tendencies, it was demanded.

Servia was further enjoined to eliminate from the educational system such tendencies, to remove all officers and functionaries guilty of an anti-Austrian propaganda, whose names and deeds the Austrian government reserved to itself the right of communicating to the Servian government; to accept the assistance of representatives of the Austro-Hungarian government in this work of suppression; to prosecute the accessories to the Sarajevo plot; to arrest Major Tankavitch, and a Servian state employee, Giganovitch, who were compromised by the Sarajevo magisterial inquiry; to stop the illicit traffic of arms and explosives across the frontier; to dismiss and punish the Servian officials in the frontier service guilty of assisting the assassins across the frontier; to furnish the Austrian government with explanations of anti-Austrian utterances credited to high Servian officials since the Sarajevo crime, and finally to notify the Austrian government promptly of the execution of all the foregoing demands.

Appended to the note was a long memorandum detailing all the facts of Servian complicity elicited by the magisterial inquiry at Sarajevo.

SERVIA'S REPLY TO AUSTRIA'S ULTIMATUM

Servia took the full time allotted to answer the ultimatum. Then the little country granted every condition demanded by Austria except the participation of Austrian officials in the inquiry, qualifying the refusal, however. A summary of the reply follows:

First—Servia agrees to the publication in its official journal, on the front page, of the formal declaration submitted by the Austrian government condemning the subversive propaganda and deploring its fatal consequences, regretting the participation of Servian officers in this propaganda, repudiating any further interference with Austro-Hungarian interests and warning all Servians that rigorous proceedings will be taken in the future against any persons guilty of such machinations.

Second—Servia agrees to communicate this declaration to the army in the form of an order of the day.

Third—It promises to dissolve those societies which may be considered capable of conducting intrigues against Austria.

Fourth—Revision of the laws governing the press.

Fifth—Dismissal from the army and navy of officers and the removal also of civilian officials whose participation in an anti-Austrian propaganda may be proved. The Servian government, however, protests against Austrian officials taking any part in the inquiry.

Sixth—The Servian government asks for an explanation as to just what part the Austrian officials are to be called upon to take in the inquiry into the Sarajevo plot, and it is announced that Servia can only admit such participation as would be in accordance with international law and good neighborly relations.

Seventh—To sum up, Servia accepts all the conditions and all the demands of Austria, and makes reservations only regarding the participation of Austrian officials in the inquiry. It does not give its formal refusal to this point, but confines itself to asking explanations.

Finally, if the Austrian government finds this reply inadequate, Servia appeals to The Hague Tribunal and to the powers which signed the declaration of 1909 relative to Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The note expressed the hope that the response would dispel all misunderstandings that threaten neighborly relations, and said that Servia had given proofs of her pacific and moderate policy throughout the Balkan crisis.

"The Servian government," the note continued, "cannot be held responsible for manifestations of a private character, such as are common in all lands and escape official control. The Servian government has been painfully surprised by the statements connecting persons in the kingdom with the Sarajevo outrage.

"It expected to be invited to co-operate in the investigation of the crime and was ready to prove by deeds the earnestness of its action against all persons concerning whom communications should be made, without regard to situation or rank.

"The government of Servia condemns all propaganda directed against Austria-Hungary, namely, all aspirations to detach from the Austro-Hungarian monarchy territories which form a part thereof, and sincerely deplores the lamentable consequences of such criminal actions.

"It regrets that certain Servian officers and officials, according to the Austrian communication, have participated in these, thereby compromising neighborly relations. The government disapproves of and repudiates any attempt to interfere with the destinies of the inhabitants of any part of Austria-Hungary."

AUSTRIA BREAKS WITH SERVIA

Apparently Austria was ready for conflict, for on the afternoon of the reply from Servia M. Jovanovitch, the Servian minister to Vienna, was handed his passports and war was virtually under way. Meanwhile other powers in Europe sought to prevent a general war, as war feeling ran high in Germany and Austria, with people in Russia and France resentful of the attitude of the two members of the Triple Alliance and making demonstrations hostile to them. Europe was rapidly being worked up to a warlike pitch; Mars so long in an eclipse was again in the ascendent as the stage was being set for his bloody role.

Russia early took a hand in the affair. The Czar as his first step asked Austria to extend the time limit of the Servian ultimatum thereby showing his sympathy with the little country. It was the beginning of the alignment of nations for the conflict. Here it was that Germany took a hand in the trouble, following Russia's warning that Austria must not invade Servian territory. The Kaiser's government declared for a "hands off" policy by other nations, leaving Austria uninterfered with in its plans to discipline Servia.

Sir Edward Grey, British foreign minister, proposed an international conference of mediation, backed up by France and Italy. This was on July 27th. The plan favored by Sir Edward Grey was that the four powers, Great Britain, France, Germany and Italy, should endeavor to settle the misunderstanding between Austria and Servia on the basis of Servia's reply to the ultimatum, or, failing this, to try to prevent hostilities spreading to other nations.

Austria and Germany did not wait long to decline to take part in a conference looking to an amicable settlement of the trouble. Within twenty-four hours Austria had formally declared war on Servia and Germany had rejected the British offer.

As soon as Germany heard that Austria had declared war it communicated with the British foreign ministry and declared that, while it considered Sir Edward Grey's suggestion well meant and in principle good, it was not feasible in practice for a great power to submit its differences with a smaller nation to the judgment of other countries.

The counter suggestion was made by Germany that, instead of an international conference, negotiations for peace should be conducted by the cabinets of the governments involved. Germany stated further that she would welcome suggestions to localize the conflict.

Austria's declaration of war on Servia marked the beginning of the European-wide struggle. The text of the declaration, issued July 28 was as follows:

The royal government of Servia not having replied in a satisfactory manner to the note remitted to it by the Austro-Hungarian minister in Belgrade on July 23, 1914, the imperial and royal government finds itself compelled to proceed itself to safeguard its rights and interests and to have recourse for this purpose to force of arms.

Austria-Hungary considers itself, therefore, from this moment in a state of war with Servia.

COUNT BERCHTHOLD,
Minister of Foreign Affairs of Austria-Hungary.

EMPEROR FRANZ JOSEPH'S MANIFESTO

With it went a manifesto from the aged Emperor Francis Joseph stating that it had been his fervent wish to dedicate his declining years to preserving the empire from the burdens and sacrifices of war.

"Providence has decreed otherwise," he said. "The intrigues of a malevolent opponent compel me in defense of the honor of my monarchy and for the protection of its dignity and the security of its possessions, to grasp the sword after long years of peace."

The manifesto referred to the ingratitude of Servia for the support the emperor's ancestors afforded to Servian independence; how Servia for years had pursued a path of open hostility to Austria-Hungary; how Austrian annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which injured no Servian rights, called forth in Servia outbreaks of the bitterest hatred.

"My government," continued the emperor, "then employed the handsome privileges of the stronger and with extreme consideration and leniency only requested Servia to reduce her army to a peace footing and promise to tread the paths of peace and friendship."

Then recalling that it was Austrian forbearance two years ago that enabled Servia to reap the fruits of the struggle against Turkey, the emperor said: "The hope that Servia would keep its word has not been fulfilled; the flame of its hatred for myself and my house has blazed always higher. The design to tear from us by force inseparable portions of Austria-Hungary has been manifested with ever lessening disguise."

The manifesto then dwelt on the "criminal propaganda which has extended over the frontier, aiming at the destruction of the foundations of order and loyalty in the southeastern part of the monarchy and the leading astray of growing youth and inciting it to deeds of madness and high treason."

It continued: "A series of murderous attacks in an organized and well carried out conspiracy, whose fruitful success wounded me and my loyal people to the heart, forms the visible and bloody track of those secret machinations which were operated direct in Servia."

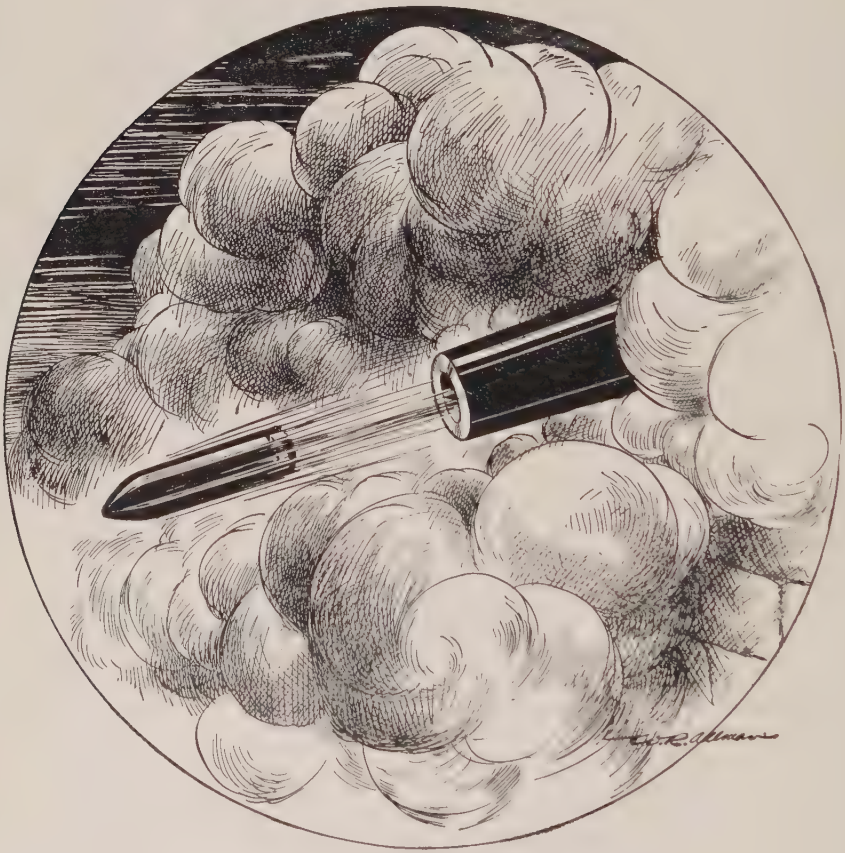
Declaring that a stop must be put to these intolerable provocations, the honor and dignity of the monarchy protected, and its political, military and economic developments guarded from continuous shocks, he said:

"In vain did my government make a last attempt to induce Servia to desist. Servia rejected the just and moderate demands of my government and refused to conform to the obligations forming the natural foundations of peace in the life of peoples and states. I must therefore proceed by force of arms to secure those indispensable pledges which alone can insure tranquillity in new states within and lasting peace without.

"In this solemn hour I am fully conscious of the whole significance of my resolve and my responsibility before the Almighty. I have examined and weighed everything, and with serene conscience I set out on the path that duty points. I trust in my peoples, who throughout every storm have always rallied in united loyalty around my throne, and have always been prepared for the severest sacrifices for the honor, greatness and might of the fatherland.

"I trust in Austria-Hungary's brave and devoted forces and in the Almighty to give victory to my arms."

And now the battle of nations was on; the Armageddon of modern times followed on the heels of the assassination of an Austrian prince in Bosnia when Austria sought revenge on Servia. The match had been touched to the European powder barrel.



PATRIOTISM

CHAPTER IV

HOW THE WAR CLOUD SPREAD

Austria Invades Servia—Russia Mobilizes for War—Germany Orders Czar to Cease Warlike Preparations—Kaiser Declares War on Russia—Kaiser Appeals to His People.

AFTER Austria's declaration of war came a series of climaxes that shook all Europe. Developments, each more startling than the other, rapidly piled up until soon it was evident that the horrors of war were to be enacted throughout Europe.

Opening their campaign the day following the declaration of war, the Austrian forces bombarded Belgrade. While this was being done, Russia, living up to the letter of her demand to Austria that she keep her troops out of Servian territory, began to mobilize for war. Russia had not swerved in her determination to support Servia.

The czar called to the colors all the reservists of twenty-three whole governments and of seventy-one districts in fourteen other governments; part of the reservists of nine districts of four governments, the naval reservists in sixty-four districts of twelve Russian governments and one Finnish government; the time-expired Cossacks of the territories of Don, Kuban, Terek, Astrakhan, Orenburg and

Ural and a corresponding number of reservist officers of the medical and veterinary services, in addition to needful horses, wagons and transport services in the governments and districts thus mobilized.

All this took place on July 29 and was the signal for Germany to declare that unless the Russian mobilization was suspended that Germany would proclaim partial mobilization within twenty-four hours. War talk which was so rife in Russia and Germany was beginning to be heard in Great Britain and France. The governments of the four countries were laying plans so as to be in partial readiness in case of need.

Russia did not heed the kaiser's ultimatum relative to mobilization which was issued on July 29th. On July 30th England took a hand in the trouble. On that date the British foreign office dispatched a note to Germany setting forth her view of the possibilities of a general European conflict and indicating very plainly that Great Britain could not afford to stand aloof if the balance of power in Europe were endangered. At the same time the good offices of Germany were urged as the only sure means of localizing the conflict before interests were compromised which might make a universal war inevitable.

The following day was marked by some sensational developments. As Russia and Austria renewed direct negotiations and Great Britain and France exerted further efforts to bring a normal state out of chaos the kaiser made war moves that shook the civilized world. He issued a decree of martial law and made a stirring speech to the Berlin populace in which he said the sword had been forced on Germany. It was about 6 o'clock when the kaiser, accompanied

by his whole family, walked out on the historical balcony of the royal palace, where his grandfather, Emperor William I, appeared years ago under much the same circumstances.

"THE SWORD IS FORCED INTO OUR HAND"—THE GERMAN KAISER

A tremendous ovation greeted the kaiser, and as he started to speak it was impossible to hear him. But Prince Edelbert, the "marine prince," lifted his hand and everybody knew then that the German emperor was about to say some momentous words. And so he began the most serious speech that perhaps was ever delivered by a mighty monarch to his people. He said:

"A heavy hour has come today upon Germany. Envious peoples everywhere force us to take measures for our own protection. The sword is forced into our hands. But I hope that in the last hour it will be given to me to sheath the sword again and do all that we can for peace. But if war comes, that same sword, with the help of God, will lead us to victory, and we will sheath it then with all honor.

"War would demand of us an enormous sacrifice in property and life, but we would show our enemies what it means to provoke Germany. And now I commend you to God. Go to church and kneel before God and pray for His help for our gallant army."

The people of Berlin after the speech of the emperor were in pessimistic mood. All eyes are turned toward Russia, for whose benefit Emperor William apparently spoke.

The decree proclaiming martial law and the prohibition

CHRISTMAS NIGHT ON BOARD A BATTLESHIP

TORPEDO SHOT OUT BY POWDER GUN

TORPEDO LEAVING GUN

of the publication of news of the movements of German troops and war material was issued earlier in the day.

The proclamation announced military measures on the frontiers, the armed protection of the railroads and the restriction of telegraphic, postal and railroad services except for military purposes.

All dispatches regarded by the authorities as objectionable were returned to the senders, and a rigid censorship on telegrams to all parts of the world was put into operation.

Crown Prince Frederick William was appointed to the command of the First Division of the Imperial Guards Army Corps.

Germany, in short, was getting ready for the developments of the following day. That day was Saturday, August 1st, and it will be a memorable date in the history of the world. It was then that the kaiser declared war on Russia, it being officially announced that the time limit of the German ultimatum to Russia had expired at noon.

After Count von Pourtales, the German ambassador to St. Petersburg, delivered the declaration of war, he and his staff left the Russian capital immediately.

A DRAMATIC SCENE

The rupture of diplomatic relations between Russia and Germany took place under dramatic circumstances. It was midnight Friday when Count von Pourtales visited Foreign Minister Sazonoff and asked for an urgent interview. As soon as he was received he formally called upon Russia to cease her mobilization in twelve hours. The allotted period of time passed without an answer. At 7 o'clock Saturday

evening Count von Pourtales again called upon M. Sazonaff and again asked if Russia would cease mobilizing her forces.

To this the Russian statesman replied:

"Inasmuch as the Russian Government has not answered within the time you specified, it follows that Russia has declined to agree with your demand."

Three times Count von Pourtales repeated the German ultimatum, and each time the Russian Foreign Minister met his statement with the same firm negative. Finally Count von Pourtales rose from his chair, bowed to the Foreign Minister and left the room without another word. He and the members of his staff at once departed from St. Petersburg by way of Finland.

According to the Novoe Vremya, Count von Pourtales held in his hand the typewritten texts of two replies from Germany. One was for presentation in the event of Russian acceptance of the German ultimatum, and the other in case of its rejection. In his great agitation the German Ambassador presented both replies to M. Sazonoff at the same time. The one that counted and plunged two more nations into war was the rejection reply.

At about the same time Count von Pourtales was being handed his passports in St. Petersburg, Emperor William again addressed the Berlin populace from a window of the Imperial Palace. More than 50,000 of his subjects cheered him wildly. He said:

"I thank you for the love and loyalty shown me. When I enter upon a fight let all party strife cease. We are German brothers and nothing else. All parties have attacked me in times of peace. I forgive them with all my heart. I

hope and wish that the good German sword will emerge victorious in the right."

The Imperial Chancellor also addressed the assembly, saying:

"All stand as one man for our Emperor, whatever our opinions or our creeds. I am sure that all the young German men are ready to shed their blood for the fame and greatness of Germany. We can only trust in God, who has hitherto always given us victory.

"At this serious hour, in order to give expression to your feelings for your Fatherland, you have come to the house of Bismarck, who, with Emperor William the Great, and Field Marshal von Moltke, welded the German Empire for us.

"We wished to go on living in peace in the empire which we have developed in forty-four years of peaceful labor.

"The whole work of Emperor William has been devoted to the maintenance of peace. To the last hour, he has worked for peace in Europe, and he still is working for it. Should all his efforts prove vain, and should the sword be forced into our hands, we will take the field with a clear conscience in the knowledge that we did not seek war. We then shall wage war for our existence, and for the national honor, to the last drop of our blood.

"In the gravity of this hour I remind you of the words of Prince Frederick Charles to the men of Brandenburg:

" 'Let your hearts beat for God and your fists on the enemy.' "

GERMANY CALLS 5,000,000 MEN TO THE COLORS

Twenty-four hours later the total mobilization of the German army was ordered. This placed in the field approximately 5,000,000 men. All male citizens between the ages of eighteen and forty-five were called upon to bear arms. The general mobilization previously ordered called to the colors the second and third reserves. The order of August 2 called out the Landsturm and put every available fighting man in Germany in active service.

The Russian Ambassador was handed his passports, a special train placed at his disposal and he was escorted to the frontier. Germany regarded the last hope of peace as having disappeared. The temper of the people of Berlin had changed in twenty-four hours. The enthusiasm of the previous day gave way to sober realization of the tremendous possibilities of the pending conflict.

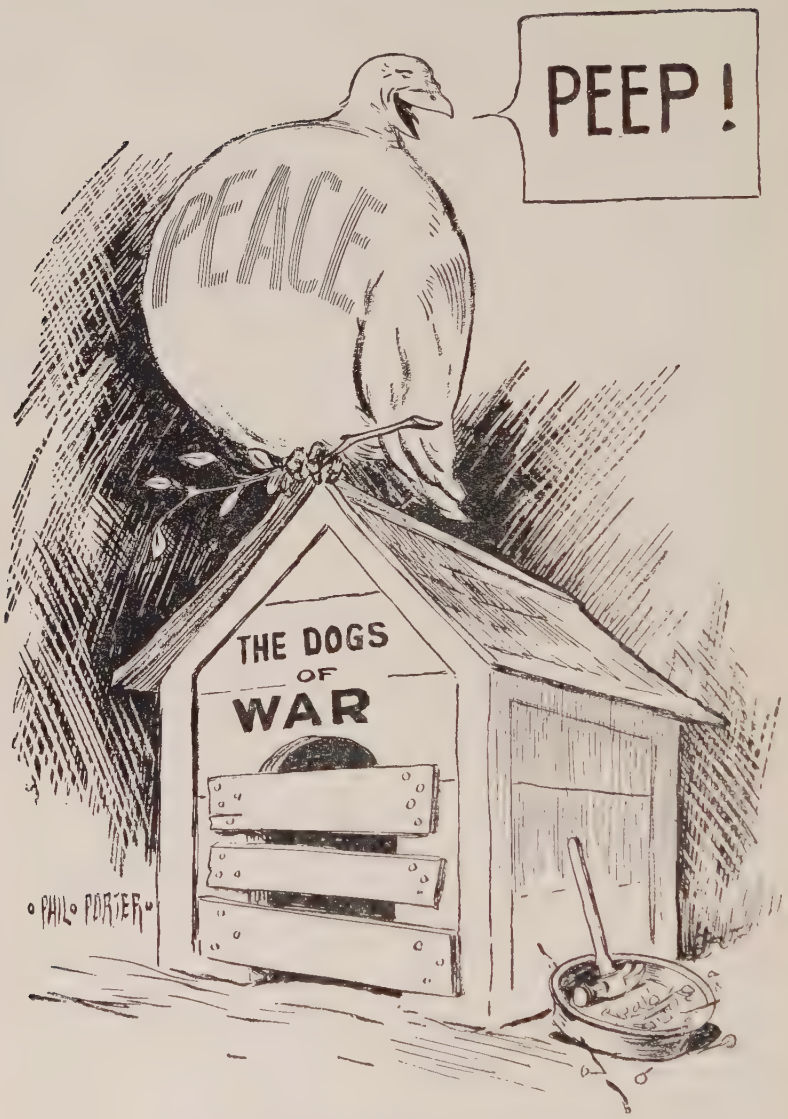
An official statement issued early in the day following the arrival of Kaiser Wilhelm from Potsdam, read:

"In consequence of a Russian attack on German territory, Germany is in a state of war with Russia.

The French reply to the German representations is of an unsatisfactory character. Moreover, France has mobilized, and an outbreak of war with France must therefore be reckoned with any day or any moment."

Another statement, issued officially, declared:

"Russia has invaded Germany during a time of peace, in flagrant contradiction of Russia's peaceful assurances."



UNTIL THE SLATS COME OFF

CHAPTER V

THE INVASION OF LUXEMBURG

Germany's Early Moves in War Game—France in a State of War with Germany—Kaiser's Demand on Belgium —Great Britain Stands by France and for the Neutrality of Belgium.

DEVELOPMENTS on August 2 showed that all hope for peace was at an end. They also showed that the Kaiser was ready for eventualities and that Germany had planned to strike quickly in its effort to gain the ascendency. On that date German troops entered the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg despite the protest of the young Grand Duchess. The French Embassy at London issued a statement declaring that German troops had invaded French territory at Cirey without a declaration of war.

This was the statement from the Embassy:

FRANCE STATES HER POSITION

"German troops have invaded Luxemburg. Germany has violated the neutrality of Luxemburg. This neutrality was established by a treaty negotiated and signed in London in April of 1867. Ratifications of this treaty were exchanged in London, May 30, 1867. Article II of it reads as

follows: 'The Grand Duchy of Luxemburg will be a state perpetually neutral. The powers which sign the present treaty declare themselves as bound to respect this neutrality and to make it respected by others. This neutrality is placed under the guarantee of the powers which have signed this treaty.'

"The British Ambassador at Berlin asked the German Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs whether Germany was prepared to respect the neutrality of Belgium. The German Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs declared that he was not able to answer. The neutrality of Belgium has been established by a treaty signed in London.

"The German Ambassador at St. Petersburg notified Russia of the declaration of war by his Government when negotiations were pending between Austria-Hungary and Russia, and at the very moment when Austria-Hungary had declared that she was prepared to consider the matter of the Austro-Serb conflict with Servia or with a neutral power on behalf of Servia.

"The German Ambassador at Paris yesterday morning had an interview with the French Prime Minister concerning the Austro-Serb conflict, and especially about the decision reached by Austria-Hungary to consider the matter with Servia or with a neutral power speaking in behalf of Servia. In spite of this, on the afternoon of the same day war was declared by Germany on Russia.

"France was asked to tell what she would do in case of war between Russia and Germany, and the German Ambassador at Paris began to prepare everything for his departure from the French capital.

"July 31, Germany called to the flag the last five classes

of her reservists. This she could do by means of the martial law proclaimed by Germany, which permitted her to keep this news secret. Consequently, on July 31 mobilization was going on in Germany.

"In spite of this France waited until August 1, at 5 o'clock in the afternoon, to order a general mobilization. This was done for the purpose of making it clear that she was not the aggressive power, and also that she might be able to claim British support.

"General mobilization was ordered in France August 1, at 5 o'clock in the afternoon. The first day of mobilization began August 2 at midnight.

The fateful order for French mobilization consisted of only seventeen words, and read as follows:

"Ministry of War. Order of general mobilization. Extreme urgency. First day of the mobilization Sunday, August 2."

The words were written in a large hand and appeared on sheets of white paper about eight by twelve inches. These posters were manifolded by a duplicating machine and not printed.

The organization immediately began in Paris of battalions of foreign volunteers, notably Belgians, Slavs and Syrians. Italians paraded through the downtown section carrying Italian and French flags and shouting "Down with Germany!" and "Long live France!"

The war spirit which was so rampant in France reached a fever heat on August 3 when the German Ambassador to Paris received word from Emperor William to demand his passports.

WAITING THE SIGNAL TO OPEN FIRE
THE FIRST SHOT OF THE GREAT WAR

THE GERMAN ARMY ENTERING BELGIUM

GERMANY BLAMES FRANCE

Germany in an official communication placed the blame for the rupture of diplomatic relations and the existence of a state of war on France. The communication said:

"On the morning of August 2, French airmen flew over Nuremberg and threw bombs, while during the night of August 1 French aeroplanes flew over the Province of the Rhine. During the forenoon of August 2 a number of French officers dressed in German uniforms crossed the German frontier from Holland, while on the same day French troops crossed the German border in Upper Alsace near Belfort.

"We consider ourselves as having been attacked by France before diplomatic relations had been broken off.

"The German troops hitherto have obeyed the orders given them by the German commanders not to cross the French frontier. French troops, on the contrary, since yesterday have made several attacks on our frontier posts without any declaration of war having been made.

"The French have crossed the frontier at several places in spite of the fact that the French Government a few days ago informed us that it would not infringe on the unoccupied zone of six miles from the frontier, and since last night companies of French troops have been in the occupation of a number of German villages.

"French army aeronauts have been flying over Baden and Bavaria yesterday and today throwing bombs, and have violated Belgian neutrality flying over Belgian territory into the province of the Rhine in an effort to destroy our railways. In this way France has opened the attack upon us

and has established a state of war which has compelled the German Empire to take defensive measures for the security of its territory."

Germany continued her policy of rapid movements. The Kaiser's Government sent a note to Belgium on the evening of August 2, proposing to Belgium friendly neutrality, coupled with the free passage through Belgian territory of German troops, the maintenance of Belgian independence at the conclusion of peace and threatening in case of refusal to treat Belgium as an enemy. The time limit of twelve hours was fixed for a reply. Belgium refused to accede to the demand.

GREAT BRITAIN TAKES A HAND

When this communication was read in the British House of Commons by Sir Edward Grey, Great Britain, too, got ready to unleash the dogs of war.

"Belgium answered that an attack on her neutrality would be a flagrant violation of the rights of nations, that to accept the German proposal would be to sacrifice her honor, and, being conscious of her duty, Belgium was firmly resolved to repel aggression by all possible means," Sir Edward said in a speech to the House on August 3.

The text of the Belgian King's telegram to King George, which was read by Sir Edward, follows:

"Remembering the numerous proofs of Your Majesty's friendship, and that of your predecessor, of the friendly attitude of England in 1870, and the proof of the friendship which she has just given us again, I make a supreme appeal to the diplomatic intervention of Your Majesty's Government to safeguard the integrity of Belgium."

Sir Edward Grey, at his first appearance before the House of Commons on August 3, stated that the House was free to decide what the British attitude in the present European conflict would be. He added that Great Britain had not committed herself to anything but diplomatic support. Sir Edward requested the House to approach the consideration of the European crisis from the point of view of British interests, British honor and British obligations. He requested the House to deal with the issue without passion, and added:

"When the documents are made public it will be seen how genuinely and wholeheartedly we have made efforts to preserve peace."

Dealing with the question of Great Britain's obligations, Sir Edward said:

"Up to yesterday, we had given no promise of more than diplomatic support. I was asked at the time of the Algeciras crisis if we would give armed support, and I said I could promise nothing to any foreign power, unless it received the whole-hearted support of public opinion. I gave no promise, but I told both the French and German Ambassadors that if war were forced on France public opinion in the British Isles would rally to France."

Sir Edward added that, if a foreign fleet came down the English Channel to bombard the French coast, "we would not stand aside."

The Foreign Secretary stated that the British fleet had been mobilized, and the mobilization of the British army was taking place, but that no engagement had yet been made by the British Government to send an expedition abroad. He continued:

"The French fleet is in the Mediterranean, and the Northern coasts of France are defenseless. If a foreign fleet, engaged in war against France, should come down and battle against those defenseless coasts, we could not stand aside. We felt strongly that France was entitled to know at once whether, in the event of an attack on her unprotected coasts, she could rely on our support. I gave assurance to the French Ambassador last night that, if the German fleet goes into the English Channel or into the North Sea to attack French shipping or the French coast, the British fleet will give all the protection in its power. That answer is subject to the approval of Parliament. It is not a declaration of war. I understand that the German Government would be prepared, if we would pledge ourselves to neutrality, to agree that its fleet would not attack the northern coast of France. That is far too narrow an engagement."

Sir Edward Grey then recited the history of Belgian neutrality, saying:

"Our interest is as strong today as it was in 1870. We cannot take a less serious view of our obligations now than did the late Mr. Gladstone in that year. When mobilization began I telegraphed to both the French and German Governments, asking whether they would respect Belgian neutrality. France replied that she was prepared to do so unless another power violated that neutrality. The German Foreign Secretary replied that he could not possibly give a response before consulting the Imperial Chancellor and the German Emperor. He intimated that he doubted whether it was possible to give an answer, because that answer would disclose the German plans. We were sounded last week as

to whether, if Belgian neutrality were restored after the war it would pacify us, and we replied that we could not barter our interests or our obligations."

Toward the close of his speech Sir Edward said:

"We must be prepared, and we are prepared, to face the consequences of using all our strength at any moment, we know not how soon, in order to defend ourselves."

In other parts of his speech Sir Edward had said:

"The intervention with Germany in regard to the independence of Belgium was carried out by England last night. If the independence of Belgium should be destroyed the independence of Holland also would be gone. Do not imagine that if a great power stands aside in a war like this it is going to be in a position to exert its influence at the end. I am not quite sure whether the facts regarding Belgium are as they reached this Government, but there is an obligation on this country to do its utmost to prevent the consequences to which those facts would lead if they were not opposed. So far as the forces of the Crown are concerned, the Premier and the First Lord of the Admiralty have no doubt whatever of their readiness and their efficiency. They never were at a higher mark of readiness. There never was a time when confidence was more justified in their ability to protect our shores and our commerce."

1870—THE PILOTS—1914

TO ARMS!

CHAPTER VI

FIVE NATIONS IN THE GRIP OF WAR

Great Britain Declares War on Germany—Kaiser Blames Other Nations for Trouble—Czar Puts Blame on Germany—France also Blames Kaiser's Government—Montenegro Declares War on Austria—Great Britain Declares War on Austria.

SIR EDWARD GREY'S speech indicated the preliminary step to Great Britain's becoming involved in the war of nations. Twenty-four hours later the British Government declared war on Germany following the expiration of the time limit set in her ultimatum to Germany demanding a satisfactory reply on the subject of Belgian neutrality. Germany's reply was the summary rejection of the request that Belgian neutrality should be respected. These words brought the force of British arms with France, Russia, Belgium and Servia against Germany and Austria-Hungary:

"Owing to the summary rejection by the German Government of the request by His Britannic Majesty's Government that the neutrality of Belgium should be respected, His Majesty's Ambassador at Berlin has received his passports and His Majesty's Government has declared to the German Government that a state of war exists between

Great Britain and Germany from 11 o'clock P. M., August 4."

On the day Great Britain declared war Emperor William in opening the Imperial Parliament again declared he was forced to grasp the sword, saying:

THE KAISER'S SPEECH

"The world has been a witness of the indefatigable manner in which we stood in the front rank during the worries and troubles of recent years in the endeavor to spare the nations of Europe from a war between the great powers. The greatest perils which had arisen owing to the events in the Balkans appeared to have been overcome, but then the assassination of my friend, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, opened up a great abyss. My ally, the Emperor Francis Joseph, was compelled to take up arms for the protection of his empire against the dangerous agitation existing in a neighboring state. In pursuing its interests the Russian Empire stepped in the way of Austria-Hungary.

"Not only our duty as an ally called us to the side of Austria-Hungary, but the great task was cast upon us at the same time, with the ancient community of culture of the two empires, to protect our own position against the attack of unfriendly forces. It was with a heavy heart that I was compelled to mobilize my army against a neighbor with whose troops mine had fought side by side on so many fields of battle, and with sincere regret I saw the breaking of a friendship to which Germany had been so faithful. The imperial Russian Government, giving way to an insatiable nationalism, has stepped to the side of a state which, through

a criminal act, had brought about the calamity of this war. That France also placed herself on the side of our opponent was not surprising to us. Only too often had our efforts to bring about more friendly relations with the French Republic come into contact with the expression of old hopes and with long standing malice.

"The present situation arose not from temporary conflicts of interest or diplomatic combinations, but is the result of ill-will existing for years against the strength and prosperity of the German Empire. We are not pushed on by the desire of conquest. We are moved by the unbending desire to secure for ourselves and those coming after us the place on which God has put us. My Government, and above all my Chancellor, tried until the last moment to prevent the worst happening. In enforced self-defense, with clear conscience and clean hands we grasp the sword. To the peoples and races of the German Empire my appeal goes forth to stand together fraternally with our allies in defense of that which we have created in peaceful work.

"Following the example of our forefathers, firm and faithful, earnest and chivalrous, humble before our God and ready to fight when in face of the enemy, let us confide ourselves to the everlasting Almighty, who will strengthen our defense and conduct it to a good end."

THE CZAR'S MANIFESTO

The day previous the Czar of Russia had laid the blame for the trouble at the Kaiser's door. The manifesto issued by Nicholas was as follows:

"By the grace of God we, Nicholas II., Emperor and

autocrat of all the Russians, King of Poland and Grand Duke of Finland, etc., to all our faithful subjects make known that Russia, related by faith and blood to the Slav peoples and faithful to her historical traditions, has never regarded her fates with indifference. But the fraternal sentiments of the Russian people for the Slavs have been awakened with perfect unanimity and extraordinary force in these last few days when Austria-Hungary knowingly addressed to Servia claims inacceptable for an independent state. Having paid no attention to the pacific and conciliatory reply of the Servian Government, and having rejected the benevolent intervention of Russia, Austria-Hungary made haste to proceed to an armed attack and began to bombard Belgrade, an open place.

"Forced by the situation thus created to take necessary measures of precaution, we ordered the army and the navy put on a war footing, at the same time using every endeavor to obtain a peaceful solution. Pourparlers were begun amid friendly relations with Germany and her ally, Austria, for the blood and the property of our subjects were dear to us. Contrary to our hopes in our good neighborly relations of long date, and disregarding our assurances that the mobilization measures taken were in pursuance of no object hostile to her, Germany demanded their immediate cessation. Being rebuffed in this demand, Germany suddenly declared war on Russia. Today it is not only the protection of a country related to us and unjustly attacked that must be accorded, but we must safeguard the honor, the dignity and the integrity of Russia and her position among the great powers.

"We believe unshakably that all our faithful subjects will rise with unanimity and devotion for the defense of

Russian soil; that internal discord will be forgotten in this threatening hour; that the unity of the Emperor with his people will become still more close, and that Russia, rising like one man, will repulse the insolent attack of the enemy. With a profound faith in the justice of our work, and with a humble hope in omnipotent Providence in prayer, we call God's blessing on holy Russia and her valiant troops."

THE FRENCH PREMIER'S STATEMENT

When Great Britain declared war on Germany the French Minister of War announced that his country was also officially at war with Germany. When Premier Viviani made the French Government's statement on the war in the Chamber of Deputies on August 4 his remarks roused the deepest enthusiasm. He detailed at great length the history of the events of the past fortnight, presenting strong arguments in the case against Germany, which, he declared, "irrefutably and logically justified the acts of the French Government."

During the course of his remarks the Premier said:

"France has been unjustly provoked—she did not seek the war; she has done all in her power to avoid it. Since war was forced upon her she will defend herself against Germany and any other power who, not yet having made known its sentiments, takes part by the side of Germany in the conflict between the two countries. Against an attack which violates all the laws of equity and all the rights of nations we have now taken all necessary dispositions. They will be carried out rigorously, methodically and calmly. The mobilization of the Russian army is proceeding with remarkable energy and boundless enthusiasm."

DIVINE RIGHT
MILITARISM
AUTOCRACY
THE YOUTH OF THE COUNTRIES OF EUROPE
ROBERT L. CARTER

MOBILIZED

AS IT WAS IN THE BEGINNING

The House turned toward the Russian Minister, M. Iswolsky, who sat in the diplomatic gallery, and cheered Russia.

The Premier continued:

"Belgium now has 250,000 men in arms, prepared to defend with magnificent ardor the neutrality and independence of their native land. The English fleet is mobilized to the smallest vessel and the English army is mobilizing."

The Deputies rose again and turned toward where the British Ambassador, Sir Francis Bertie, was sitting, in the gallery, and cheered wildly round after round.

The French Minister of War issued the following note earlier in the day:

"The German Ambassador has demanded his passports, and diplomatic relations between France and Germany have been broken off.

"War is declared."

The Government sent a message to Jules Cambon, French Ambassador in Berlin, telling him to ask for his passports and to leave the embassy and consulate in the care of the United States.

Two more declarations of war followed within a week. The first was when little Montenegro lined up with the allies against Germany and Austria by declaring war against the latter country on August 8. In this connection came a declaration from the Czar of Russia that it was a Slav war. Addressing the members of the Council of the Empire and the Duma in audience at the Winter Palace Nicholas said:

"In these days of alarm and anxiety through which Russia is passing, I greet you. Germany, following Austria, has declared war on Russia. The enormous enthusiasm, the

patriotic sentiments and the love and loyalty to the throne—an enthusiasm which has swept like a hurricane through the country—guarantee for me, as for you, I hope, that Russia will bring to a happy conclusion the war which the Almighty has sent it. It is also because of this unanimous enthusiasm, love and eagerness to make every sacrifice, even of life itself, that I am able to regard the future with calm firmness. It is not only the dignity and honor of our country that we are defending, but we are fighting for brother Slavs, co-religionists, blood brothers.

"I see also with joy the union of the Slavs with Russia progressing strongly and indissolubly. I am persuaded that all and each of you will be in your place to assist me to support the test, and that all, beginning with myself, will do their duty. Great is the God of the Russian Fatherland!"

GREAT BRITAIN DECLARES WAR ON AUSTRIA

On August 12, Great Britain made her stand clear to take a leading part in the struggle when she declared war on Austria. This was done by handing the Austro-Hungarian Ambassador his passports. The British Foreign Office issued the following statement in doing so:

"His Majesty's government has declared to His Excellence the Austro-Hungarian Ambassador that they feel themselves obliged to announce that a state of war exists between Great Britain and Austria-Hungary as from midnight."

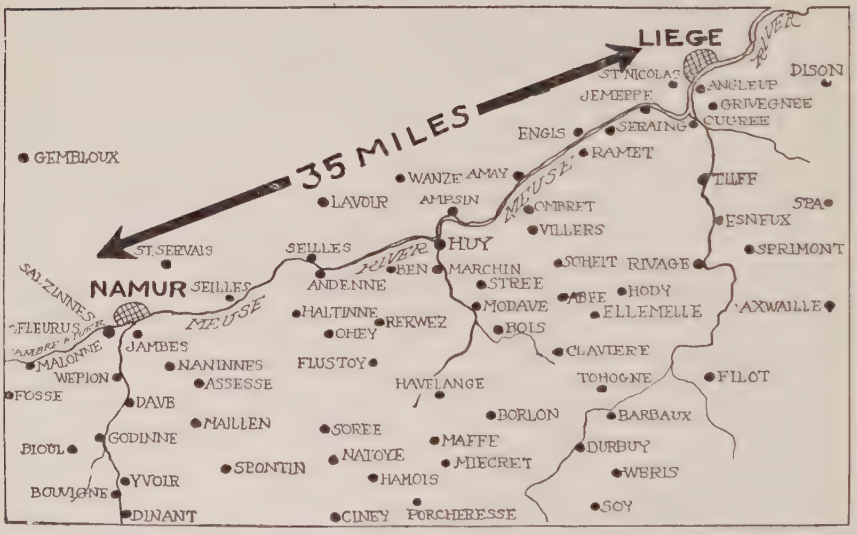
Austria later attacked Great Britain for her stand in the following note:

"Austria's war against Servia, an independent state, and

for a cause which did not affect international politics, cannot be considered as the cause for the present European war."

Great Britain's note to Austria, the statement continued, failed to point out the fact that Austria was obliged to declare war against Russia because the latter's mobilization threatened Austria. It is denied that Austria sent troops to the frontier, a fact, the statement says, which France already knew from the Austrian Ambassador. The note ended:

"It is evident that Great Britain's alleged reasons for declaring war not only are arbitrary alterations of facts, but deliberate lies. England has thus lightly broken her traditional friendship with Austria in order to support France; but, nevertheless, she will not find Austria unprepared."



LOCATION OF THE GREAT BATTLE AT LIEGE, BELGIUM

CHAPTER VII

JAPAN TAKES A HAND IN THE TROUBLE

Japan Soon Takes Steps to Take a Hand in the Great War —Kiaochou Territory Leased by Germany in China Causes Japan to Prepare for War—Mikado's Government Sends an Ultimatum to Germany Demanding that German Ships Leave Oriental Waters and That Germany Evacuate Kiaochou—Time Limit Set in Note Expires with Germany Failing to Notice the Communication—Japan Declares War on Germany—Japan's Strength on Land That Is Thrown in with the Allies—Strength of the Japanese Navy.

JAPAN did not wait long to become embroiled in the great European struggle. The Mikado's Government, it seemed, had been casting covetous eyes on Kiaochou for some time and on August 23, only a few days, so to speak, after the Kaiser had shown his hand, the Eastern people were at war with the Germans. On August 15 the Japanese Government sent an ultimatum to Germany demanding the withdrawal of the German warships from the Orient and the evacuation of Kiaochou and giving Germany until August 23 to comply with the demand and until September 15 in which actually to carry out the evacuation.

The ultimatus ultimatum was as follows:

"We consider it highly important and necessary in the present situation to take measures to remove the causes of all disturbances of the peace in the Far East, and to safeguard the general interests as contemplated by the agreement of alliance between Japan and Great Britain.

"In order to secure a firm and enduring peace in Eastern Asia, the establishment of which is the aim of the said agreement, the Imperial Japanese Government sincerely believes it to be its duty to give the advice to the Imperial German Government to carry out the following two propositions:

"First—To withdraw immediately from Japanese and Chinese waters German men-of-war and armed vessels of all kinds, and to disarm at once those which cannot be so withdrawn.

"Second—To deliver on a date not later than September 15 to the Imperial Japanese authorities, without condition or compensation, the entire leased territory of Kiaochou, with a view to the eventual restoration of the same to China.

"The Imperial Japanese Government announces at the same time that in the event of it not receiving by noon on August 23, 1914, an answer from the Imperial German Government signifying its unconditional acceptance of the above advice offered by the Imperial Japanese Government, Japan will be compelled to take such action as she may deem necessary to meet the situation."

KIAOCHOU THE BONE OF CONTENTION

Kiaochou was the only European holding in that section of China and diplomats declared at the time Japan issued

its ultimatum to Germany that the Mikado was anxious to get the region and that if he did not obtain it during the European crisis it was only a question of time when he would do so. The German Government, as was expected, refused to accede to Japan's demands. In fact Germany took no notice of the communication. So it was that on August 23, when the time limit stated in the ultimatum had expired, that Japan joined the warring nations. Her declaration of war on Germany which lined her up with the allies was as follows:

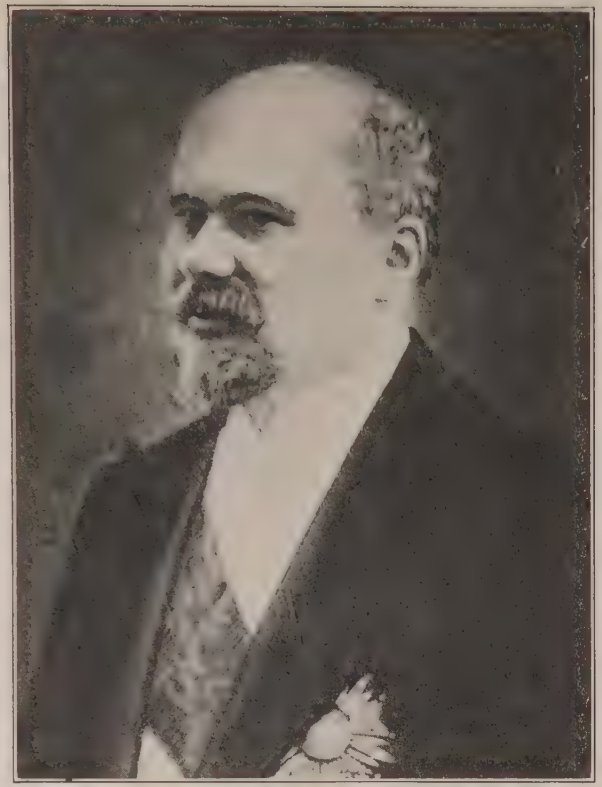
"We, by the grace of heaven, Emperor of Japan, seated on the throne occupied by the same dynasty from time immemorial, do hereby make the following proclamation to all our loyal and brave subjects:

"We hereby declare war against Germany, and we command our army and navy to carry on hostilities against that empire with all their strength, and we also command all our competent authorities to make every effort, in pursuance of their respective duties, to attain the national aim by all means within the limits of the law of nations.

"Since the outbreak of the present war in Europe, calamitous effect of which we view with grave concern, we, on our part, have entertained hopes of preserving peace of the Far East by the maintenance of strict neutrality, but the action of Germany has at length compelled Great Britain, our ally, to open hostilities against that country, and Germany is at Kiaochou, its leased territory in China, busy with warlike preparations, while its armed vessels, cruising seas of Eastern Asia, are threatening our commerce and that of our ally. Peace of the Far East is thus in jeopardy.

EMPEROR OF JAPAN

VICTOR EMMANUEL III
King of Italy



RAYMOND POINCARE, PRESIDENT OF FRANCE

GEORGE V, KING OF ENGLAND

"Accordingly, our Government and that of His Britannic Majesty, after full and frank communication with each other, agreed to take such measures as may be necessary for the protection of the general interests contemplated in the agreement of alliance, and we, on our part, being desirous to attain that object by peaceful means, commanded our Government to offer with sincerity an advice to the Imperial German Government.

"By the last day appointed for the purpose, however, our Government failed to receive an answer accepting their advice. It is with profound regret that we, in spite of our ardent devotion to the cause of peace, are thus compelled to declare war, especially at this early period of our reign, and while we are still in mourning for our lamented mother.

"It is our earnest wish that, by the loyalty and valor of our faithful subjects, peace may soon be restored and the glory of the empire he enhanced."

WAR FEVER RAMPANT IN JAPAN

Japan had had the war fever for some days and the declaration of war was received with great enthusiasm in Tokio. Japan took prompt steps to enforce her demands on Germany. The Mikado's Government apparently was ready for war. In any event the declaration of war by the Japanese left Germany and Austria arrayed against a great host of men. At this time the two parties to the old triple alliance were at war with Russia, France, England, Belgium, Servia, Montenegro and Japan. It was a great force that these allies commanded, one far in excess of the land and sea forces of Germany and Austria.

Japan was able to put 1,000,000 more fighting men in the field against Germany and Austria. She also had 181 warships to add to the combined fleets of the allies. This brought the land forces of the allies up to a strength almost double that on land and several times as great on sea. In addition to the 1,000,000 available men Japan had to put in the field she had a powerful reserve army.

It is true that Japan had suffered great financial loss in the war with Russia and was in a poor condition so far as ability to wage war was concerned in the matter of wealth but the war fever was rampant in Japan and the Mikado's Government was anxious to drive the Germans from Kiaochou even if it was necessary to plunge the country into a war that might cost millions. Japan did not reckon the cost. Whether it was so that she was seeking an excuse, as many diplomats said, is a question. But certain it was that Japan acted promptly in delivering an ultimatum to Germany and in taking quick action on Germany's failure to answer the communication.

HOME, SWEET HOME

CHAPTER VIII

YOUNG KING OF THE BELGIANS

Grandson of a German Prince—His Queen the Grand Niece of the Murdered Empress of Austria—His Visit to America When Crown Prince—His Large Possessions in the Congo with 30,000,000 Belgian Subjects—A Democratic Monarch.

KING ALBERT of the Belgians also became a prominent personality early in the struggle. When he made such a brilliant record as a soldier while the Germans were battering at the gates of his nation the civilized world awoke to the fact that his would be a name that would go down in history. King Albert is the grandson of the first King of the Belgians, a German prince from Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, who was invited to rule as Leopold I. His sovereignty lasted for thirty-four years. The sovereignty of his son, Leopold II., lasted for forty-four years. That of his grandson, King Albert, began only in 1909. Belgium has been prosperous and united under their rule. Each sovereign identified himself thoroughly with his subjects and gave his life to the adopted country so completely that the royal family of Belgium is considered by the Belgians themselves as Belgian.

ALBERT, KING OF BELGIUM

MOHAMMED V, SULTAN OF TURKEY

BRITISH TROOPS CROSSING A RIVER

King Albert and Queen Elizabeth have had to sacrifice their nearest and dearest family ties to remain loyal to Belgium during this war. Both are as German as centuries of German blood can make them. The Queen, who is the daughter of Duke Carl Theodore of Bavaria, one of the most celebrated eye specialists of his generation, is the name-sake and god-daughter of her aunt, the murdered Empress Elizabeth of Austria. She had always maintained the most affectionate relations with her uncle, the Emperor Francis Joseph, whose army was allied to Germany's.

KING ALBERT KNOWN TO AMERICANS
HIS VISIT TO AMERICA

King Albert was thirty-nine years old and Queen Elizabeth a year younger at the outbreak of the war. Many Americans have met the king. In 1898 he visited America for several months. He had dinner in Washington with President and Mrs. McKinley, went to Newport to be entertained by Mrs. Potter Palmer, took luncheon at the Lawyers' Club in Wall street with Frederic R. Coudert, went over to the Standard Oil works at Bayonne, N. J., visited the United States Navy Yards and saw also a cavalry drill, and as a diversion after such strenuous labors tried to visit the scene of a murder in Brooklyn. A burly policeman baffled him, ordering him away from the house of crime. The oil fields in Western Pennsylvania were thoroughly inspected and the manufacturing establishments in Massachusetts investigated, after which Prince Albert—as he was then—went out West and made a tour with J. J. Hill of the railroad centres. Society hastened to entertain him where-

ever he went and occasionally it interfered with the engineering and industrial studies he was making by the commands of his uncle, King Leopold II., in order to fit him for his later duties as King, so that he finally hid his identity under an assumed name. In New Orleans he was C. A. Harris. In St. Louis he stayed for three days at a hotel as "John Banks of New York."

In 1909, a few months before he became King, he visited the Belgian Congo, where he had 30,000,000 subjects and a territory which yielded great revenues to his private purse as well as to the Belgian Government. The Belgian Congo was Leopold II.'s gift to the nation which elected to have his father come from Germany to rule over them. Its government has been full of difficult problems, which Leopold II.'s masterful mind ignored, having in view only its development to increase the wealth and importance of Belgium, but King Albert carried out reforms in the Congo to add to the happiness of the natives. King Leopold controlled it personally, King Albert had to share its control with his Government, sharing also its revenues with the nation. His private fortune was twenty-odd millions of dollars, in addition to a sufficient grant from the state to maintain his palaces and household.

NO TAX FOR A CORONATION

He and Queen Elizabeth did not have any formal coronation, such as most of the other sovereigns have, following the example of Leopold II., who gave to the people the large sum of money, many thousands of dollars, for which they had been taxed to pay for the coronation. The new King

and Queen had, however, a state entry into Brussels the day before Christmas in 1909, when the cannon boomed a royal salute and the church bells rang out as hundreds of thousands of their subjects from all quarters of the small kingdom shouted themselves hoarse in welcome. The Queen rode first in the procession, sitting in the royal coach with her children, Prince Leopold and Prince Charles and the dainty little Princess Marie Jose, the coach drawn by six horses in gay harness and escorted by a squadron of soldiers; the King, behind them, astride a spirited horse, looking quite kingly in his military uniform of white embroidered in gold, and with his own military escort.

He and the Queen have been democratic, easily accessible to all classes of society, and they became so popular that the Socialists who used to demand a republic for Belgium, were seldom heard from.

The court at Brussels was visited by many foreigners during King Albert's reign and was considered one of the most delightful courts of Europe.

CHAPTER IX

GERMANY'S WAR LORD

Personal Description of Kaiser Wilhelm II—His Work as Emperor and Methods of Life—Has a Big Body, Short Legs and a Withered Arm—The German Navy His Personal Creation—His Income $7,000,000 a Year—His Hobbies.

BULKING largest in the great struggle which tore Europe asunder was Emperor William of Germany. Often times he had been called the War Lord and the manner in which he took the aggressive and began to force matters at the opening of the campaign seemed to prove that he had the right of title as a son of Mars. He personally encouraged his men and his warlike utterances thrilled the German Empire. He took the attitude that Germany would fight the whole world if necessary. He held that the sword had been forced into his hand, that other nations were jealous of Germany and that they alone were to blame for the great war. His attitude was one of studied aggressiveness and whatever the merits of his claims he didn't waste time in pushing matters.

A year before the war Germany was celebrating the quarter of a century reign of William II. At the time Germany was in a great state of prosperity following a long

period of peace with a big increase in the population and a corresponding large increase in the wealth of the nation. Then the Kaiser risked everything by casting the mailed gauntlet in the face of Europe. But this did not seem to bother him and he had the mass of his people behind him.

The following describes him at the outbreak of the great war of 1914:

William II, "Der Kaiser"—for Bismarck insisted that the new German emperors should assume the ancient style of the old emperors of Germany—the ninth monarch of the House of Hohenzollern to rule over the Kingdom of Prussia and the third of the house to rule over the Empire of United Germany. He is a gray-haired man of fifty-five, not more than 5 feet 8 or 9, with a distinct tendency to corpulency. He carries most of his fat about his waist, and although he bears himself erect his shoulders are round. His legs are too short for his body, but when walking he takes long strides and lets his gold spurs clank. Of late years he has worn a flowing military cape, as it permits him to retain something of the martial air of his younger days. Naturally he looks his best when on horseback.

The real countenance of the much advertised man was perceptibly different from the thousands of his portraits on sale all over the world which showed the dashing, dauntless, somewhat defiant head of the Hohenzollerns. That is a pose assumed for the photographer, a pose intended to idealize him to his subjects and to convey the impression that "Der Kaiser" is devoted to lofty aims and is elevated above the common herd. All his official photographs have the same expression, the look that the Germans call "ernst," but his

natural face is a very sad face furrowed by anxiety; a casual observer might say that he looks cross.

KAISER A CRIPPLE FROM BIRTH

The Kaiser's face is always pale and pasty and after fatigue or in illness he looks ashen gray. He has been a cripple from birth. His left arm was injured so severely by the straining of the main nerves that it is atrophied and shrunken and hangs limp and practically useless save to repose on the gold sword hilt at his side. The extent to which this cripples his movements can best be judged by the fact that he cannot even hold a fork in his left hand and eats with one which he holds in his right and which has a specially heavy outside prong with a flat cutting edge that answers the purposes of a knife as well. Yet by a wonderful display of pluck, perseverance and suppleness he has made himself an adept at most sports. He can fence, swim, row, shoot, ride and play billiards a great deal better than many men who have the use of both their arms. In shooting he takes aim with his right arm, and only when hunting big game does he use a resting rod; at billiards he places his left arm in position on the table with his right and then rests the cue upon it in the ordinary way; on horseback he merely supports the reins in his left hand, which is held in place by an ingenious contrivance, and guides his charger with his knees.

Since Frederick the Great no German ruler has understood the business of being emperor as well as the Kaiser. He has many traits in common with his illustrious ancestor—a love of order, a love of business, the taste for things military, a boundless extravagance in some things and the mean-

EMPEROR WILLIAM OF GERMANY IN THE FIELD

BATTLESHIP PASSING THROUGH KAISER WILLIAM CANAL

est parsimony in others, an imperial spirit and an irritable temper. His mind is like an elephant's trunk, which finds it just as easy to pick up a needle as to unroot a tree. Take his hobbies, for instance. One is the navy. In 1871 the ships that flew the flag of the North German Confederation —that striking design of black and white and red which is the battle emblem of the Kaiser's navy today—were so weak that they could take little part in the conflict, and France was able to bottle up the North Sea with impunity. Today the German navy is second only to that of England.

The German navy is literally the Kaiser's own personal creation. He is one of the greatest living authorities on naval construction, and his collection of ship models is perhaps the finest and most costly in the world. No error of proportion is too slight, no mistake in construction is too insignificant to escape his critical eye, and his knowledge of things naval can truly be said to spring from a real love of the sea. For years he labored to fire his people with the same spirit, and at last succeeded. He forced enormous credits from reluctant parliaments, built the ships and found the crews to man them. Not only did he build up the navy, he also built up a merchant marine, and when the war started Germany had nearly four million tons of shipping on the seven seas. In contrast, the Kaiser's other hobby is collecting old shoes. He has the slippers of Voltaire and those of the great Napoleon, the riding boots of Wallenstein and the tiny dancing shoes of Talma.

HIS SUCCESS AS A BUSINESS MAN

The same extraordinary contradictions are carried into his finances. The Kaiser's income is derived from his hered-

itary kingdom of Prussia and from a vast amount of private property comprising castles, forests and landed estates. Also he is credited with having made millions in business ventures, owning a considerable interest in one of the transatlantic lines and in most of the German railroads. In 1910 it was conservatively estimated that his total revenue exceeded $7,000,000 a year, but it was probably more.

Although he is modest and simple to a degree in his personal tastes, and smokes penny Dutch cigars, he is extravagant in the maintenance of an imperial show and display. He spends millions upon millions of marks every year and has incurred immense debts in order to uphold the standard of imperial luxury suited to the power, prestige and dignity of his position. No court in Europe since that of Louis XIV of France has approached the splendor of the Kaiser's, no monarch has had more servile courtiers, and it is astonishing that he has retained as many homely virtues as he has. Wherever he goes, whatever he does, he is surrounded by aristocratic satellites, and he lives continually in an environment that tends to increase his haughtiness and imperial pride and the sense of his own importance.

The pomp and ceremony of the formal court functions are imposing in the highest degree, but although the Kaiser insists unrelentingly upon the rigid etiquette laid down by the German protocol, and will not permit even the highest officers of his army or the proudest of his nobles to depart one hair's breadth from the ceremonial that must be observed in his presence, he can when it serves his purpose, either for personal profit or national aggrandizement, be friends with men who are not of noble birth. Among his intimates are Herr

Ballin, the manager of a steamship line; Herr Belbrüch, a Berlin banker, and Herr Friedlander, a coal merchant.

It is from men that he learns, not from books. Thus when Roentgen discovered the "X" rays the Kaiser sent for him and spent hours questioning him on every phase of his discovery. His thirst for knowledge was such that he never stopped till he had extracted from the great savant all the information he had upon the subject.

THE KAISERIN

In 1881 the Kaiser married Princess Augusta Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Augustenburg, who in 1864 had come forward as a claimant to the Duchy of Schleswig-Holstein, and by her he has had six sons and one daughter. The Empress has not been without influence on his family life, which, compared to that of the other Hohenzollerns, has been remarkably free from left-handed love affairs. At least she has not had to lead the life of anxious jealousy that was the portion of his grandmother and mother. The Empress is his ideal of womanhood, a wife that loves, honors and obeys her husband and is a fond and productive mother. Political influence she never tries to exert, but devotes her time to the "Kaiser, Kinder, Kirche, Kochen und Kleider" (Kaiser, children, church, cooking and clothes).

Even at his silver wedding, standing beside the Empress, surrounded by their children, his first thoughts were not for them. "My first and last care is for my fighting forces on land and sea."

CHAPTER X

THE RUSSIAN COMMANDER

The Grand Duke Nicholas Nicholaevitch Was Prominent in the Russo-Japanese War—One of the Finest Cavalry Officers of the Great Empire—His Mother a German—Known as the Strong Man of Russia Who Might Become Regent or Even Czar.

GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS, the leader of the Russian forces, was a commanding figure in the great war. The Czar is nominally the supreme commander of the Russian army as well as of the Russian navy, and it is understood that when war was declared he was ambitious to place himself at the head of the troops in the field. But he was persuaded to delegate the supreme command of the army at the outset to his cousin the Grand Duke Nicholas Nicholaevitch, a soldier in looks, one of the tallest men in the army, and the finest cavalry officer of the empire, making a splendid appearance on a horse; and a commander of long experience who was one of the chief officers of the Russo-Japanese war. His executive ability was apparent when he acted as the head of the military commission in charge of the closing operations of this war, and he was able to cope successfully with revolution in Russia itself.

LEADER OF THE ANTI-GERMAN FACTION

The Grand Duke Nicholas was the strong man of the imperial family and always spoken of as the probable regent, if Russia should need a regent. The Czar's life, being in constant danger from the bombs of the Nihilists, and his only son, the Grand Duke Alexis, a little boy, the Grand Duke Nicholas, it was thought, might some day become regent and even Czar.

As leader in the imperial family of the anti-German faction he strenuously opposed those visits of state which have of recent years taken place between the Czar and the Kaiser, preferring to come out openly as the latter's enemy. But Grand Duke Nicholas might any place be taken for a German, with his blond hair and blue eyes. They are an inheritance from his German mother, who was a Duchess of Oldenburg, from the family which gave a wife to the Kaiser's second son, Prince Eitel, and an inheritance from his German grandmother. She was Princess Charlotte, the sister of Frederick William III., King of Prussia, and Great-grandfather of Kaiser William II. Princess Charlotte became Czarina of Russia by her marriage to the Czar Nicholas I. and her second son was the father of Grand Duke Nicholas.

CHAPTER XI

KITCHENER OF KHARTOUM

The Great Soldier Who Was at the Head of England's War Department in the European War of 1914—He Organized the British Army in India and Was Chief of Staff of Lord Roberts in the Boer War—How He Destroyed the Tombs of the Prophets After Slaying 17,000 of the Enemy in One Day.

FIELD MARSHAL EARL KITCHENER, who was made Secretary of State of War when Great Britain declared war on Germany, took office as the British War Lord almost immediately. He is a picturesque figure although he lacks the glamor that surrounded the Kaiser. When the European crisis broke out Lord Kitchener was at home on furlough, his visit to England having a further purpose—that of receiving from the King a new honor, the dignity of an Earl and the titles Earl Kitchener of Khartoum and Viscount Broome of Broome in the County of Kent.

Lord Kitchener was born at Crotter House, Ballylongford, County Kerry, on June 24, 1850, his father being the late Lieutenant Colonel H. H. Kitchener of Cossington in Lancashire, and his mother a Miss Chevallier of Aspall Hall, Suffolk. Although born in Ireland, while his father was

stationed there, he is of pure English stock and not Hibernian as frequently claimed.

He was educated at the Royal Military College at Woolwich and entered the Royal Engineers in 1871. As commander of the Egyptian Cavalry during the Soudan campaigns of 1882-84, he first came into public notice and established himself in public regard when he was made Governor of Suakim. In 1890 he was made Sirdar of Egypt and eight years later he commanded the famous Khartoum expedition with conspicuous success and received the thanks of the government, was raised to the peerage and granted $510,000.

HARD WORK IN THE DESERT

This was the result of thirteen years of work in the desert when he silently pursued the Kalifa and his hordes, laying the railroad each mile as he pushed on, and met the enemy at last, destroying at the great battle of Omdurman nearly 17,000 in the day. He concluded his work by blowing up the Madhi's tomb, scattering the bones of the prophet to the four winds, and settling the sands of the desert over the spot where the tomb had been. For this he was severely criticised, and in the House of Commons he was censured by some sentimentalists for an act of vandalism. He curtly replied that his instructions were to destroy the enemy, and he had done so, and to insure the future peace he had also destroyed the resting place of the prophet by whom the fanatics swore, as the tomb would have been a rallying center for the enemy. He had wiped out all traces of the

prophet and the followers. The resulting peace has justified him.

When, after the three awful disasters to British arms in South Africa under the command of General Buller, the Daily Mail came out with the placard, "The Government's Xmas present to the nation: Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener to leave for the front," the whole British people gave a great sigh of relief; now the errors would be repaired. Roberts for tactics, Kitchener for organization.

He lives for his life work; his passion is for efficiency. He serves no other god but the god of battles. His whole life was planning and organizing of forces. He never had a great reputation as a skilful leader in manœuvering; it is as an organizer that he is supreme. He greatly resembles the German tradition of soldiering, exact in equipment, mathematical in calculation, stern to ruthlessness to accomplish his end. Yet he settled the Boer war by offering to the leaders of the Boers terms of surrender so generous that only a man of statesmanlike mind could have seen them to be justified.

For his services as chief of staff in South Africa until Lord Roberts returned home, and as commander-in-chief until the conclusion of the war, he was advanced to the rank of a full general in the army and to a viscountcy in the peerage. There was the further consolation of a grant by Parliament of £250,000 which accompanied the thanks both houses of Parliament voted him.

In 1902 he was sent to India as commander-in-chief, where he thoroughly reorganized the Indian army, in which operation he came into collision with Lord Curzon, who mar-

ried Mary Leiter of Chicago, who resented his high-handed methods.

His instructions were to reorganize the British army in India. This required appropriations largely in excess of the previous years. He sent the request for their approval to the Indian Council, over which Lord Curzon, not the least of autocrats himself, presided. Lord Curzon refused to pass them. Lord Kitchener's tone changed. Before he had asked, now he demanded. Lord Curzon refused with a curtness that showed he believed his will equal to the stern and immobile Kitchener. He was wrong. Lord Kitchener stood upon the broad authority of his commission, which was to reorganize the army in India, and he demanded that the home government support him. Lord Curzon stood upon his constitutional rights as the civil power to control and overrule the military. Lord Midleton, the life-long friend of Lord Curzon, his fag at Eton, to whom the appeal was made as Secretary of State for India, decided against Curzon and with Kitchener. Lord Curzon resigned and returned to England.

HIS ADMINISTRATIVE WORK IN EGYPT

Since 1911 he has held the post in Egypt made famous by Lord Cromer and his system of land reform and his encouragement of cotton growing on the Nile have shown him to be as great an administrator as he is soldier. His land reform system, modelled on the plan adopted by the United States in dealing with the American Indians, which forbids the native to sell his land to contractors, was the system advocated by the reform party in Mexico.

On his visit to America two years ago, Lord Kitchener made a very favorable impression, not by what he said but by his astonishing power of saying nothing and his imperturbable demeanor.

Although in his sixty-fifth year Lord Kitchener has the vigor of a man ten years younger. He is straight as a dart, stands six feet two inches, his black hair only slightly tinged with gray. His penetrating gray eyes and stern, cold expression are the terror of army loafers, who either "get on or get out!"

Lord Kitchener is a bachelor. Society he detests. For women he has no time. He dedicated himself to his work and did not believe in the domestic joys for the soldier. All his officers when he commanded the army in Egypt had to be bachelors. He did not want to have men around him sighing for home and wife and children. Those things are not for a soldier in Kitchener's understanding of the life.

KITCHENER'S ADVICE TO HIS SOLDIERS

As soon as Lord Kitchener took charge of Great Britain's war affairs he issued a pamphlet advising his men how to conduct themselves. These were issued to the army which landed in France early in the struggle. They read as follows:

"You are ordered abroad as soldiers of the King to help our French comrades against the invasion of a common enemy.

"You have to perform a task which will need your courage, your energy and your patience.

"Remember that the honor of the British army depends on your individual conduct.

A STAMPEDE OF BRITISH ARTILLERY TEAMS

LOADING A MACHINE GUN

LANDING ARTILLERY FROM TRANSPORTS

"It will be your duty not only to set an example of discipline and perfect steadiness under fire, but also to maintain the most friendly relations with those whom you are helping in this struggle.

"The operations in which you will be engaged will for the most part take place in a friendly country and you can do your own country no better service than in showing yourself in France and Belgium in the true character of a British soldier by being invariably courteous, considerate and kind.

"Never do anything likely to injure or destroy property and always look upon rioting as a disgraceful act.

"You are sure to meet with a welcome and to be trusted. Your conduct must justify that welcome and that trust.

"Your duty cannot be done unless your health is sound so keep constantly on your guard against any excesses.

"In this new experience you may find temptation both in wine and women. You must entirely resist both temptations and while treating all women with perfect courtesy you should avoid any intimacy.

"Do your duty bravely. Fear God and honor the King."

CHAPTER XII

A WAR OF COUSINS

All of the Royal Families of Europe in the Great War of 1914 Were Related by Blood or Marriage Except Servia's—Many Grandchildren of King Christian of Denmark and Queen Victoria of England—Also Held Military Titles in Each Other's Armies and Navies—A Continental Family Row.

VIRTUALLY all the embattled kings and queens of Europe in the great war of 1914 were cousins.

Indeed, the only "outsider," who could claim no kinship with the rest, was King Peter of Servia, the immediate cause of the war, and the engagement had been announced of King Peter's son, Prince Alexander, Crown Prince of Servia, to Grand Duchess Olga, oldest daughter of the Czar of Russia.

All their published photographs proclaim the cousinship of the King of England and the Czar of Russia. They could not look more alike if they were brothers. Their mothers are sisters, both daughters of Christian IX of Denmark and his matchmaking queen, who enjoyed the distinction of furnishing more kings and queens from her family than any other monarch of modern times—or ancient either, for that matter.

Besides the beautiful Queen Alexandra, mother of King

George of England and Dagmar, consort of Czar Alexander of Russia, the clever spouse of Christian IX gave two kings to European thrones, Frederick VIII of Denmark and the late King George of Greece. In addition, a son of Frederick was called to the throne of Norway as Haakon VII.

QUEEN VICTORIA'S REIGNING GRANDCHILDREN

But, speaking of clever and matchmaking royal mammas, to the late Queen Victoria, grandmother of King George of England, belongs the palm. One of her daughters became the Empress of Germany, the mother of the present Kaiser. The following of her grandchildren occupied other European thrones:

George V of England, son of Edward VII.

Wilhelm II, Kaiser of Germany, son of Princess Victoria.

The Czarina of Russia, daughter of Princess Alice.

Queen Maud of Norway, daughter of King Edward.

Queen Victoria of Spain, daughter of Princess Beatrice.

Queen Sophia Dorothea of Greece, daughter of Princess Victoria.

An interesting group of royal cousins is made up of the Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany, King George of England and the Czarina of Russia. The Czarina is the daughter of the Princess Alix of Hesse-Darmstadt, a daughter of Princess Alice of England, a daughter of Queen Victoria and an aunt of King George.

The Kaiser is a son of Princess Victoria, who was married to the Kaiser Frederick III, who died a few months after his accession to the German throne and was succeeded by the present Kaiser.

A story is told that when Kaiser Wilhelm II was a mere boy, a playmate struck him by accident and made his nose bleed. When the playmate hastened to apologize the future Kaiser would not listen.

"It's no matter," he replied as he wiped his bleeding nose. "There goes the last drop of English blood in my body."

Nicholas I of Montenegro is entitled to a high place in the matchmaking class. The Queen of Italy was the Princess Helena of Montenegro. The Princess Militza of the same house is the wife of the Grand Duke Nicolaievitch of the Russian royal family, the Princess Anna was married to Prince Francis Joseph of Battenburg, and the Princess Anastasie to the Grand Duke Nicholas-Nicolaievitch.

MONTENEGRIN HOUSE RELATED TO GREAT BRITAIN, GERMANY AND RUSSIA

Through the Crown Princess Militza, who was married to the Montenegrin Crown Prince Alexander, the royal house of Montenegro was connected with that of Great Britain. Germany and Russia. The Crown Princess was the Duchess Jutta of Mechlinburg-Strelitz. She took the name Militza at her marriage.

Through King Constantine of Greece, nearly all the crowned heads of Europe became cousins-in-law if they were not already blood cousins. King Constantine married Princess Sophia, a sister of the present Kaiser, and thus came into more or less close relationship with many of the royalties of Europe. King Constantine is a son of that King George whom the matchmaking Queen of Denmark gave to the throne of Greece and thus a nephew of Alexandra, the "queen mother" of England and Dagnar, the Dowager

Czarina of Russia, and a cousin to about every royalty of his generation in Europe.

When, at the opening of hostilities in the War of 1914, the territory of Belgium was threatened with invasion by the Germans, King Albert of Belgium wrote an appeal to King George of England to come to his assistance. He might have addressed his letter, "My dear Cousin," for he is a blood cousin of King George. Through Philip, Count of Flanders, King Albert was descended from Leopold I, Prince of Saxe-Coburg, who was elected King of the Belgians in 1831. Leopold I married Charlotte, Princess of Wales.

King George of England and King Haakon of Norway are not only cousins but brothers-in-law. King Haakon married Princess Maud, King George's sister. He was a Danish prince before his election to the throne of Norway and a son of Frederick VIII, who married Louise, a daughter of Queen Victoria and King George's aunt.

Innumerable royal alliances succeeded the union of the houses of Hanover and Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, through the marriage of King George III of England and Queen Charlotte. Both Queen Victoria and her husband, besides other members of the families of Hanover, Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, were united by their progeny to scions of other royal houses and passed by marriage to Saxony, Hohenzollern, Austria, Bavaria, Portugal, Belgium, Baden, Hesse, France, Naples, Tuscany, Bulgaria, Greece, Russia Romania, the Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden, Norway and Spain, with all of whose royal families that of Great Britain is more or less remotely connected.

The houses of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha and Hanover met again in the marriage of the Duke of Kent and Princess

Mary Louise. Their only daughter was Queen Victoria and when she was married to Albert, second son of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, the two houses became practically one.

This royal house of England goes back through George I to James I and Mary Queen of Scots and to the Guelphs whose ancestry is probably derived from the princely house of Este.

Queen Wilhelmina of Holland is also a cousin, though somewhat further removed, of most of the royal houses of Europe. Through the marriage of William V, Prince of Orange and Sophia Wilhelmina, Princess of Prussia, from whom Wilhelmina is descended, she was closely connected with the reigning house of Germany.

The royal family of Romania, through its Crown Prince, is closely related to other ruling families. Charles, King of Romania, married Elizabeth, Princess of Wied and their son, the Crown Prince Ferdinand Victor, married Princess Marie of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, daughter of the late Duke of Edinburgh, an uncle of King George of England.

RUSSIAN AND GERMAN ROYAL MARRIAGES

So many of the Grand Dukes of Russia have made marriages connecting them one or another of the many divisions of the German Empire that it has been said the ancient Romanoff strain became almost as German as the Kaiser.

Here is an instance of the close and intricate relations between these two houses: Grand Duke Michael, the last surviving granduncle of the Russian Emperor Nicholas, died

in 1909. He had married the Princess Cecilia of Baden. Their eldest daughter, Anastasia, was married to the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. Her grand daughter is Cecilia, the German Crown Princess.

A popular British Princess who is the consort to the heir to a throne is the Princess Margaret of Connaught, daughter of Duke Arthur of Connaught, a son of Queen Victoria. She is married to the Crown Prince of Sweden. Her sister is the favorite Princess "Pat," so much admired in America as well as in England. Through the Duke of Connaught and his sons and daughters there is another link with the German Empire, for the Duchess of Connaught, mother of the Swedish Crown Princess and of Princess "Pat," was the Princess Louise of Prussia.

Some of of the various cousins of King George of England, all of whom are of royal blood, are Prince Ernest Louis, Grand Duke of Hesse; Princess Frederick Charles of Hesse, Princess Alexander of Hohenlohe, Leopold Charles Edward, reigning Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha: Charlotte, hereditary Princess of Saxe-Meiningen; Princess Henrietta of Reuss, Princess Adolphus of Schaumberg-Lippe, the Duchess of Sparta, Princess Victoria of Battenberg, Grand Duchess Sergius of Russia, Grand Duchess Cyril of Russia, Adolphus Frederick, reigning Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz; Maria, Duchess of Orleans; the Princess of Thurn and Taxis, Prince Gaston of Orleans, Prince Ernest Bernhard of Saxe-Altenburg, Archduchess Otho Francis Joseph of Austria and William Prince of Hohenzollern.

MILITARY RELATIONSHIP OF WARRING RULERS

There was even a sort of military cousinship between the principal reigning houses at war. Kaiser William, for instance, not only ranked as the admiral-in-chief of his own navy and general-in-chief of his own army, but also as a field marshal of Great Britain, an admiral of the British fleet, the colonel-in-chief of a regiment of British Royal Dragoons, a Danish, a Norwegian and a Swedish admiral and most singularly of all, an admiral of the Russian fleet also.

Queen Mary of England held the rank of a colonel of Prussian hussars. Queen Wilhelmina of Holland held titles, in the Prussian guard and German navy. Both the Czar and the Czarina of Russia could have gone on the field with their regiments of German soldiers to mow down the forces of Emperor William. The Emperor of Russia was commander of a Bavarian regiment and in the suite of the German navy; the Empress was commander of a regiment of dragoons of the Prussian guards.

As if these tangled royal alliances were not already sufficiently puzzling, a number of matches were being arranged between the princes and princesses of these States. One was the marriage between Prince Alexander of Servia and the Grand Duchess Olga. The other two were those of Elizabeth, the granddaughter of the King of Roumania, to George, the Crown Prince of Greece, and of Prince Charles, the son of Crown Prince Ferdinand of Roumania, to the Grand Duchess Tatiana of Russia.

WAITING FOR ORDERS

CHAPTER XIII

ARMED STRENGTH OF WARRING NATIONS

Strength of the Rival Nations—Twenty Million Men Prepare for War—Allies Have Advantage in Land Power—Naval Strength of Allies also Greater—Great Britain's Powerful Navy—Classification of Great Sea Fleets—Aerial Strength of Powers Favors Allies—Wealth of Warring Nations, with Revenue, Expenditure and Debt—Cost of General War.

WHEN the lines were finally drawn and the opening shots had been fired, approximately 20,000,000 men, the regular forces of the rival armies, were being mobilized and pushed to the front. The allies, in regular troops greatly outnumbered Germany and Austria, the total number for France, Russia, Great Britain, Belgium, Servia and Montenegro standing at 10,902,000 as against 7,200,000 for Germany and Austria. These forces were apportioned as follows: France, 4,000,000; Russia, 5,500,000; England, 730,000; Belgium, 222,000; Servia, 300,000; Montenegro, 150,000; Germany, 5,200,000; Austria, 2,000,000.

The unorganized strength of the warring nations, added to the organized gave the allies 17,721,000 men and Germany and Austria 11,200,000. The unorganized strength was:

Russia, 5,200,000; France, 1,000,000; Great Britain, 200,000; Belgium, 400,000; Servia, 100,000; Germany, 1,000,000; Austria-Hungary, 3,000,000.

In naval strength also the powers at war with Germany and Austria had an advantage. Relatively their sea strength was much greater than that of Germany and Austria, although neither Belgium, Servia nor Montenegro possessed any power on the water. Great Britain alone had more fighting craft than Germany and Austria combined and almost as many officers and men for duty on the sea.

Great Britain war ships numbered 569, with a personnel of 163,700 men. France had 419 ships, manned by 60,621 men and Russia had 220 ships with 52,463 men. The sea strength of these countries was classified as follows:

Great Britain—dreadnoughts and cruiser battleships, thirty-nine; first class cruisers, forty-two; smaller craft, 488. France—dreadnoughts and cruiser battleships, seventeen; first class cruisers, eighteen; smaller craft, 384. Russia—dreadnoughts and cruiser battleships, thirteen; first class cruisers, six; smaller craft, 201. This gave the allies sixty-nine dreadnoughts and cruiser battleships; sixty-six first class cruisers and 1,073 smaller craft, manned by a total of 276,784 officers and men.

ALLIES HOLD ADVANTAGE ON SEA

Turning to a table of the sea strength of Germany and Austria the advantage in favor of the allies is all too evident. Germany had only twenty-six dreadnoughts and cruiser battleships; nine first class cruisers and 290 smaller craft.

Austria had four dreadnoughts and cruiser battleships; three first class cruisers and 107 smaller craft. This made up a total of the two countries of thirty dreadnoughts and cruiser battleships, twelve first class cruisers and 397 smaller craft, with a sea fighting force of 194,233 men.

The German navy was a wonderfully efficient organization in a typically German way. There was no discounting the thoroughness with which the German fleet has been drilled, the faithfulness that has gone into its preparation, from driving the first rivet in each vessel's keel to the training of the turret-pointers and the drill at manœuvring in squadron.

CRITICISM OF FRENCH NAVY

The French navy had come in in the past for some very hard knocks from the critics. Discipline in that service was declared to be just two jumps above the Russian standard and approximating that of Spain. France's long series of naval disasters were dragged out to prove that her navy is all but a hopeless affair.

As a matter of fact, the French navy suffered from very much the same trouble as the Italian. The Latin doesn't maintain the Teutonic idea of discipline, but he seems to get along very well on his own peculiar lines. The French ships, like the Italian, are very near the dirtiest afloat, and this in itself is apt to prejudice an American critic.

But while, to our minds, dirt and discipline are contradictory terms, there isn't any conclusive proof that dirt and straight shooting should be. And the French can show a very pretty article of the latter commodity. Ashore they are

GERMAN LIGHT CRUISER "STETTIN"

MODERN TORPEDO BOATS

handicapped by a great deal of graft and slack methods in their navy yards, but at sea the French are not only good sea-faring men, but plentifully supplied with enthusiasm for their profession.

There are no naval men in the world who study their profession along scientific lines with the zeal the French put into it. Every one of them has tactics at his fingers' ends, and in the torpedo branches, destroyers and submarines, they easily led the world.

The strength in the air was also in favor of the allies, numerically at least. Germany had a powerful fleet of Zeppelins, which many experts on aviation declared before the war would play an important part in the struggle and be of great aid to the Germans.

STRENGTH FOR BATTLES IN CLOUDS

The following table shows the fighting strength of the great powers in the war:

DIRIGIBLE AIRSHIPS OF THE RIVAL POWERS

Germany and Austria

Germany	Non-rigid	Semi-rigid	Rigid	Totals	Gas capacity in cu. ft.
War airships	3	2	6	11	
Passenger airships....	2	1	3	6	8,616,730
Austria					
War airships	1	1		2	
Passenger airships....	1			1	561,270
Grand totals				20	9,178,000

In construction January 1, 1914—

Germany—Five large rigid type; capacity, 4,200,700 cubic feet.

Allies

	Non-rigid	Semi-rigid	Rigid	Totals	Gas capacity in cu. ft.
France					
War airships	9	3	1	13	
Passenger airships	1			1	4,115,980
England					
War airships	7			7	882,500
Russia					
War airships	12	1		13	2,252,140
Grand totals				34	7,250,620

In construction January 1, 1914—

France—7 non-rigid, 2 semi-rigid, 1 rigid; gas capacity, 6,036,300 cubic feet.

England—3 non-rigid, 2 rigid; capacity, 2,753,400 cubic feet.

Russia—2 non-rigid, 2 rigid; capacity, 1,235,000 cubic feet.

Total building for Allies, 10,024,700 cubic feet.

AEROPLANES OF THE RIVAL POWERS

(INCLUDES MONOPLANES, BIPLANES, HYDROPLANES)

Triple Alliance

Germany

Army and navy	152
Private aeroplanes (estimated)	200

Austria

Army	40
Navy	6
Private (estimated)	35

Triple Entente

France

Army and navy	450
Private (estimated)	1,000

England

Army	148
Navy	60
Private	154

Russia

Army and navy	250
Private (estimated)	150

The number of men in the armies (at war strength) of the great powers, in proportion to their populations, was as follows:

Germany, 1 man in 12.48 of population; Austria, 1 in 25.67; Italy, 1 in 29.36; United Kingdom, 1 in 62.15; France, 1 in 9.09; Russia, 1 in 31.10.

FINANCIAL RESOURCES OF WARRING POWERS

It will be seen from the following table that the resources of the Allies substantially exceed those of Germany and Austria, although the national debts of the former far exceed the aggregate of the indebtedness of the latter group.

The revenues, however, of the United Kingdom, France and Russia are very much larger than those of Germany and Austria. Figures show, moreover, that the wealth of the United States is greater than that of Germany and Austria and exceeds the total resources of the Franco-Russian alliance. It is greater too than that of the United Kingdom and Russia combined.

	Revenue.	Expenditures.	Debt.	Total Wealth.
Germany ...	$879,656,000	$879,656,000	$1,177,418,000	$60,500,000,000
Austria	636,909,000	636,852,000	1,433,511,000	25,000,000,000
Italy	512,800,000	505,841,000	2,706,609,000	20,000,000,000
Un. King'm.	918,805,000	917,929,000	3,485,818,000	80,000,000,000
France	914,604,000	914,550,000	6,283,675,000	65,000,000,000
Russia	1,674,038,000	1,674,038,000	4,553,488,000	40,000,000,000
U. S.	992,249,000	965,274,000	1,028,344,000	130,000,000,000

The above tabulation does not include the resources of the colonies of the respective nations or of their dependencies.

The expenses of a general war have been thus tabulated by Prof. Charles Richet of the University of Paris:

NUMBER OF MEN ENGAGED

	Men
Austria	2,600,000
England	1,500,000
France	3,400,000
Germany	3,600,000
Italy	2,800,000
Roumania	300,000
Russia	7,000,000
Total	21,200,000

DAILY COST OF A GREAT EUROPEAN WAR

Feed of men	$12,600,000
Feed of horses	1,000,000
Pay (European rates)	4,250,000
Pay of workmen in arsenals and ports	1,000,000
Transportation	2,100,000
Transportation of provisions	4,200,000
Munitions—Infantry 10 cartridges a day	4,200,000
Artillery—10 shots per day	1,200,000
Marine—2 shots per day	400,000
Equipment	4,200,000
Ambulances—500,000 wounded or ill ($1 per day)	500,000
Armature	500,000
Reduction of imports	5,000,000
Help to the poor (20 cents per day to one in ten)	6,800,000
Destruction of towns, etc	2,000,000
Total per day	$49,950,000

CHAPTER XIV

BATTLES IN THE AIR

Lord Tennyson's Remarkable Prophecy Realized—Aerial Crafts Revolutionizing Warfare—Germany's Zeppelins Veritable Aerial Battleships—How Aerial Forces Were Distributed Along Frontiers—The Aeroplane by Day and the Dirigible by Night—England's Attempt to Bar Foreign Air Craft—All Nations Steadily Increasing Their Air Strength—Biplanes More Adaptable for Dropping Bombs—Damage by Bombs an Open Question—Zeppelin a Convertible Cruiser.

ONE of the most remarkable prophecies in literature is that of Lord Tennyson, made almost a century ago in his "Locksley Hall."

The famous English poet realized in prevision the possibility of the conquest of the air. Tennyson foresaw aerial warfare when he wrote:

"For I dipped into the future, far as human eye could see;
Saw the vision of the world, and all the wonder that would be;

. . . . . .

Heard the heavens fill with shouting, and there rained a ghastly dew
From the nations' airy navies grappling in the central blue."

This nineteenth century dream of the great poet was realized in the struggle which involved practically all of Europe, when the tremendous flying forces of the two greatest rivals for aerial supremacy clashed, and the value of aircraft as a military asset had its first real test.

BEGINNING OF DAY OF AIR NAVIES

But this is only the inception of the struggle in the sky which may yet attain such development as to force the warring nations to lay down their arms and usher in an era of universal peace. When the full fury of the mammoth death engines upon which the nations of Europe have spent the staggering sum of $117,000,000 since 1908 have been unleashed the ensuing horrors may end war forever.

The perfection of aerial warfare will change into a mockery the old methods of armies that creep and navies that crawl over land and seas. Admiral Sir Percy Scott, the inventor of the most destructive of British artillery, confessed at the beginning of the European War that he had exhausted his engineering skill in devising resistance for dreadnoughts that were now rendered obsolete by the forces in the air and under the sea, the airship and the submarine.

HOW THE AERIAL FLEETS COMPARE

Here is an accurate and exhaustive statement of the great aerial armaments mobilized by the warring nations at the beginning of the gigantic conflict. The figures are taken from government reports, and added thereto are the latest statistics from authoritative technical sources:

Germany has already spent $28,000,000 on her aircraft. France follows closely with $22,000,000, and Russia with $12,000,000. Italy has spent $8,000,000, Austria $5,000,000, and England $3,500,000. So great has been the clamor for aerial defense in the last six years that in Germany public subscriptions for aircraft have added $3,000,000 to this stupendous sum. The same situation obtained in France, where, in addition to the appropriations by the government, the French public enthusiastically contributed $2,500,000.

STAGGERING APPROPRIATIONS FOR AERIAL DEFENSE

In the last twelve months the appropriations of European nations for this purpose reached the amazing sum of $24,250,000, with France in the lead. France appropriated $7,400,000; Germany, $5,000,000; Russia, $5,000,000; England, $3,000,000; Italy, $2,100,000 and Japan, $1,000,000. With war in the air now an accomplished fact, it is probable that the appropriation of $37,000,000 made by the German Reichstag to cover a period of five years may be drawn into the great vortex.

ZEPPELIN A VERITABLE BATTLESHIP

Each of the eighteen Zeppelins comprising the German air fleet, the most powerful in the world, is a veritable aerial battleship, armed as it is with quick-firing and machine guns and launching tubes for discharging aerial torpedoes. Three of this vast fleet are passenger dirigibles which have been converted into air cruisers.

A DARING DASH OF NEW WAR MACHINES

HYDROPLANE READY FOR FLIGHT

Ten Parseval non-rigid dirigibles, armed with machine guns at the bows and a launching tube in the floors of the cars make up a part of the German air squadron, and added to these are two of the largest rigid cruisers of the Schuette-Lanz type, which mount guns, as do the Zeppelins, on top of the hull. They also possess the additional advantage of having machine guns displayed in sponsons projecting from the sides of the hull and reached by stairways. The great German air-fleet is completed by the addition of six smaller non-rigid ships of the "M" type.

HOW FRANCE LINED UP

Against this imposing array France marshaled sixteen serviceable dirigibles much smaller and slower than the German airships. Their energies were of less power, and it was the opinion of French experts that the air squadron of that country would be no match for the big German Zeppelins. France depended, however, on her splendid array of aeroplanes to offset the deadly work that might have been wrecked by the German dirigibles on her supply depots and camps.

At the beginning of the war France had 800 aeroplanes and 1,200 airmen, interference by which Germany opposed by hurling 700 aeroplanes fully as good as those of France against superior numbers. These machines, which were to protect the mammoth German dirigibles, were fully manned, in most instances by two men. Some French and German aeroplanes carried light machine guns, and were equipped for dropping bombs of weights up to seven pounds. It is

said that four of these 22-pound bombs have completely wrecked railway stations and supply depots.

RUSSIA AND ENGLAND PLAYED SMALL PARTS

Russia and England did not play any great part in the conflict with their dirigibles. Eight of Russia's air craft were built by French factories, and are of relatively small power. No attention need be given to England's dirigibles, for until the beginning of the war she concentrated her efforts on sea planes, armed with a shell-firing gun, with which she trusted to destroy the dreaded Zeppelins. Russia's aeroplanes numbered 500, but she had less than a hundred trained pilots to operate them. England's Royal Flying Corps mustered 350 aeroplanes and as many pilots. Austria was practically last on the list with six dirigibles of inferior power and 150 aeroplanes, and an inadequate number of pilots.

GERMAN AIRSHIPS ALONG FRENCH BORDER

The opening of the war was marked by the studied effectiveness with which both Germany and France disposed their aerial forces along the frontiers. Eight Zeppelins and six Parsevals were stationed in the latest type of revolving airship sheds at Friedrichshafen, Strassburg, Metz and Cologne, on the French border. Operated by electricity, these sheds permitted a rigid airship to enter or leave always with the wind, thus avoiding the former risks of breaking the vessel if a sudden wind blows athwart the entrance. It was found that a capacity for eight more Zeppelins could be

obtained in the same sheds by a system of relays while others were away on a mission.

At the beginning of the war, Germany had other units of her aerial fleet in other stations at Frankfort, Gotha, Thorn, Hamburg, Cuxhaven, on the North Sea; Berlin, and others at Koenigsburg, Posen, Breslau near the Russian frontier, and at the Island of Heligoland, in the North Sea. She had converted into cruisers three passenger Zeppelins, the Hansa, Victoria Luise and Sachsen.

FRANCE PLACES "FIFTH ARM" ON BORDER

"The fifth arm," as France designates her aeroplanes, was depended upon by that power to repel aerial invasion. She assembled practically her entire aeroplane "fleet" at her great flying camps—Rheims, Verdun, Toul, Epinal and Belfort, the great fortresses which stretch along the German frontier, immediately upon the beginning of hostilities. The aeroplane, however, has the disadvantage of being a bird of the day, while the dirigibles may be operated equally as well at night, and this great advantage enabled Germany many times to escape the sharp eyes of the French airmen. The aid of small searchlights was resorted to in the operation of aeroplanes, but they do not illuminate very much of the darkness, and the plan was abandoned.

ENGLAND BARS FOREIGN AIRCRAFT

Great Britain at the outset of the war emphasized her vulnerability by the issuance of an order prohibiting foreign aircraft from flying over seventy-six restricted districts,

representing military or naval garrison, fortified islands, piers, wireless stations, dockyards, lighthouses, railway stations, supply depots and towers. The opening of the conflict found the naval wing of her flying corps at Eastchurch, and the army wing at Salisbury Plain and Farnborough. But England's sea-planes, already mentioned, were her only possible resistance to Zeppelins flying overhead at night. These planes, which carried two men and wireless, had a flying time of six hours over sea, and much of their work was to detect the approach of Zeppelins toward the British coasts.

NATIONS INCREASE AIR FORCES

Realizing from the first that in the death grapple in the air many men and fighting machines would inevitably go down to death, each nation took steps, long before actual hostilities developed, to replenish its shattered air forces. France had a score of aircraft factories, all of them working overtime. Germany's dozen plants worked 24 hours a day. The same may be said of the two great Zeppelin works—the one at Friedrichshafen, the other at Berlin, employing 2,500 skilled artisans—the output of which is six Zeppelins a month. At the outbreak of the war the Zeppelin fleet consisted of twenty-three ships.

Not only were England's six factories engaged in producing aeroplanes, but at Farnborough the British navy was constructing a great rigid dirigible of the Zeppelin type, working in feverish haste because of the inadequacy of the Russian and Austrian factories to keep these factories supplied,

There was a marked perfection in the organization and work of the respective air fleets of France and Germany. The air dreadnought fleet of the latter, being strictly homogeneous, formed one collective striking force. The airship fleet consisted of four squadrons of four airships each, with two in reserve. There was a separate basis of operation for the dirigibles of the army and of the navy. The Prussian army possessed six airship battalions each having twenty companies, while Bavaria had three companies, and Saxony and Wurtemburg two companies each.

CREW OF AN AIRSHIP

A military or naval officer, assisted by two lieutenants, was in command of each airship. Four helmsmen worked in relays, while two helmsmen attended to naught but the rudders for horizontal steering. Four engineers and an assistant engineer were in charge of the motors, of which, on the latest type of Zeppelins, there were five, each having 1,000 horse-power. Relief was furnished by two wireless operators. Three machines and from three to six gunners completed the crew, these figures varying according to the size and armament of the ship.

The German factories completed but a few days before the outbreak of the war the latest marine Zeppelins, of which there were three, the L.3, the L.4 and L.5, and which were the giants of the entire Zeppelin fleet. Scaling 30,000 cubic meters and covering journeys of 2,000 miles around Germany in thirty-four hours, achieving a speed of a mile a minute, these great ships remained continuously in the air for forty-eight hours with their full war complement and guns,

which were of greater range than any ship of this type heretofore constructed. These marine monsters carried the most powerful searchlights made, and were intended by the German Admiralty for attacking the British fleet at night, should the occasion arise.

FRENCH ORGANIZATION EFFECTIVE

The same degree of effectiveness was to be found in the French organization. The entire nation was first divided into aviation centers, and these were in turn subdivided into flotillas. Much success attended observations from the French aeroplanes, and the airmen returned with accurate estimates of the number, kind and disposition of troops and artillery. At the same time it became possible to double the power of the French artillery by having its fire directed by aviators who had found the target. Each artillery command had a section of aeroplanes attached to it for this purpose, and which were carried along with the artillery, mounted on wheeled transports, together with all the impedimenta necessary to maintain the aeroplanes in the field, such as automobile trucks and traction engines for wheeled transports. It may be said here that these trucks, engines and transports proved to be cumbersome escorts, which were subjected from time to time to the deadly work of the Zeppelins.

OBSERVER DISTRESSED BY WIND GUSTS

A curious feature of this work, the truth of which was demonstrated by actual military work in France, is that the

THE UNITED STATES AFFECTED BY THE WAR IN EUROPE

observer became seasick and nervous, a fact which has prevented the greatest accuracy in machines directed by a pilot. The observer's distress in time of gusts is much more marked than that of the pilot, who does not fear gusts, since, in piloting, the latter holds in his hands the means for preventing pitching and rolling. This gives him a sense of security which constitutes a decided moral advantage. Experience has shown that the work of the observer who is not sure of his pilot is incomplete, and ofttimes valueless to the commander on the ground, and that much better and more dependable work has been done by single pilots. They have made excellent sketches while driving, thus demonstrating that the single seater has an advantage over the two seater. It is a notable fact that the single seat monoplanes belonging to the French army were the fastest machines in the fleet.

EFFECT OF BOMB DROPPING

The biplanes clearly showed their serviceability in the dropping of bombs, the aiming being done by an engineer officer with a bomb ejector. The dropping of bombs in the European war settled the much argued question of the effect of bombs on troops by demonstrating that no little havoc can be created among those below by the use of an occasional bomb dropped among them. However, this is not to say that damage will always be done thereby, for the experience of many troops, notably the Italians in Tripoli, tended to show that the moral and material effect on troops is very small. Indeed, in many cases, the bombs did not explode.

France has not made public the results of her experiments with projectiles, and we have no way of knowing the

value thereof at the present time. Other countries as well have been devising projectiles for use against aeroplanes and airships. These projectiles release peculiar bullets which fly out in all directions, and which themselves release knives and hooks which tear and rend. Aerial torpedoes, fired from a gun and maintaining as flat a trajectory as any other discharged missile, are among other of the inventions of the French. There is, however, no reliable information about the result of the experiments.

GERMANS PLACE FAITH IN BOMBS

The Germans placed much faith in the work of the Zeppelins in the matter of bomb-dropping. These giants of the air, which had the advantage of well regulated speed, which permitted the taking of sharp photographs, an efficient working crew and a long range wireless equipment, which permitted the imparting of instant information, the ability to slacken speed and hover at night over a supply depot, gave a good account of themselves in the European war. The bombs dropped from these Zeppelins struck circles of fifteen feet in diameter, even when sent from a height of one mile. Four to five tons of explosives was carried by each of the great German air dreadnoughts, and twice that quantity was transported by the marine Zeppelins.

AEROPLANES COMPARATIVELY SAFE

A small target was afforded by the aeroplanes, which were able to keep out of the range of the guns of the airships. Comparative safety for the pilot was provided by the armor plated bodies of the latest types of offensive aero-

planes; and it was noted that no damaging effect following the piercing of the wings by bullets. During the Balkan war the gasoline tanks were frequently struck, but without disastrous result.

About 300 pounds of explosives was carried by the modern French and German aeroplanes, 35 of which, carrying as formidable a load as a Zeppelin, demonstrated on more than one occasion their power of destroying a dirigible by rising vertically over it and dropping bombs thereon—if the guns on top of the Zeppelin do not get the aeroplane.

But the Germans saw to it that the Zeppelins would not encounter aeroplanes. They avoided French aeroplanes by traveling at night to the proposed point of attack. Traveling very high and arriving at early dawn, they wrecked supply camps, thus, by this new form of warfare, crippling the enemy and rendering him an easy prey for the army.

The armament of the Zeppelins was capable of being changed from time to time, to suit the kind of attack and the distances to be traveled to meet the enemy, as well as the general condition of the weather. Ordered to attack Paris, a Zeppelin would, to conserve its endurance, carry one quick firing gun and 250 rounds of artillery ammunition, two machine guns and their ammunition, and several light machine rifles for emergency. No bombs would be carried.

PERSEVERANCE OF GERMAN GUN BUILDERS

For more than six years German builders of guns have been working to make German airship weapons certain to hit the mark, pierce protective covers and explode magazines. The Krupps several years ago turned out a light

rapid firing gun capable of throwing sixty two-inch shells a minute, and which, operating from the deck of the Zeppelin I, proved a success. Shortly afterward, Erhardt, of Dusseldorf, produced a light, quick firing gun. This, mounted atop the rigid hull of a Zeppelin, proved that refinement of aim, attained by practice, would produce appalling results. Kites in the air were perforated at long range.

One of the problems solved during the European war was that of getting perfect range and maintaining a fixed distance between the moving airship and some object on the ground. By means of its statoscope the airship was kept at a constant height above the ground, the instrument registering the slightest change in height above sea level, after which the ship was steered in a circle at this fixed elevation, the target itself being used by the helmsman as a pivotal bearing in his steering. This form of target practice was first begun in 1910, over the artillery grounds at Jeuterburg, and was later carried on at the airship stations at Doberitz, Hanau and Metz. Perfect range was obtained, even in the highest winds.

The Germans early learned that the machine gun, slaying with an absurdly small and light bullet, was an ideal aerial weapon. Because of its small size, many thousands of rounds of such ammunition can be carried on a dirigible. Its stream of 500 bullets a minute will, at 1,500 yards, batter through a brick wall as effectively as a cannon ball.

RULES OF HAGUE GOVERNING AIRCRAFT

According to the agreement reached at the Hague by the nations, there was no precedent governing the use of air-

craft in advancing the cause of a belligerent. The representatives of the Powers placed the launching of projectiles from dirigibles in the same class as the subjection of coast cities to ransom at the demand of a powerful fleet. Firing upon aircraft is not prohibited. Great Britain endeavored to have the dropping of bombs prohibited, because it was a menace to her military isolation and, further, because her strongest naval vessel might meet destruction in this way.

Germany's refusal to vote for the prohibiting of bomb throwing was most natural. She has made great progress in the use of dirigibles and has spent vast sums of money in her quest for supremacy of the air. Great Britain was joined by Russia in her effort to render unfortified places immune from attack by aircraft. It was finally ruled by the Hague that undefended towns, villages and dwellings cannot be bombarded from the air.

AERIAL WARFARE TO BRING WORLD PEACE?

According to the rules of the Hague, crews of captured aircraft will be taken as prisoners of war, and not treated as spies. It was agreed that the use of aircraft for purposes of war would ultimately result in the maintenance of peace. The suggestion was advanced that dirigibles, being able to pass over protecting armies, would speedily visit the capital of a nation itself, where those individuals most responsible for the war could be found, thus subjecting them to personal danger immediately upon the declaration of hostilities. It is therefore contended that this result of the development of aerial navigation would bring the crowned heads of Europe to their senses, and usher in an era of universal peace.

RADIUS OF EFFECTIVE ACTION OF GERMAN AIRSHIPS

CHAPTER XV

THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE AND THE TRIPLE ENTENTE

The Former a Signed and Sealed Compact, the Latter a "Gentlemen's Agreement"—How They Were Formed and Why—Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy Composed the Alliance and Russia, France and Great Britain Composed the Entente—Bismarck the Originator.

WHAT is known as the Triple Alliance or Dreibund had its beginning in October, 1879, when Prince Bismarck visited Vienna and arranged with Andrassy, the Premier of Austro-Hungary, a treaty by which Germany bound herself to support Austro-Hungary against an attack by Russia, Austro-Hungary agreeing to help Germany in the event of a combined attack by Russia and France.

This alliance was strengthened three years later by the adhesion of Italy. Italy had no reason to be friendly to Austria, but the activity of France in northern Africa in 1881 aroused an apprehension which proved sufficient to outweigh her historic grievance and, rather than see the Mediterranean "turned into a French lake," Italy joined herself to France's avowed enemies.

After five years the Alliance was renewed upon terms supposed to be more favorable to Italy and it has been re-

newed again from time to time, so that it was nominally in effect until the outbreak of the world's greatest war.

Upon what terms, however, has never been published by the contracting powers. Some light was thrown on that question when Italy broke away from Germany and Austria at the outbreak of the war, explaining that she was not bound to Germany and Austria in offensive warfare but only for mutual defense. When, therefore, Austro-Hungary declared war against the Serbs and Germany rushed to her ally's defense and made the war her own, Italy was not under obligation to join. Such was the Italian point of view.

It has never proved difficult for the statesmen of Europe to explain either the making or the breaking of treaties. Before the Triple Alliance there was a Dreikaiserbund between Germany, Austria and Russia. On paper it was justified by the most specious pleas and Bismarck, Gortchakov and Andrassy were able to defend it as a firm and lasting guaranty of the "peace of Europe."

But when self-interest whistled in the Balkans or at the Dardanelles the "dogs of war" were presently at the throat of the "peace of Europe" and the pledges of great statesmen were torn to shreds.

The Dreikaiserbund or Three Emperors' Alliance was called a "mutual understanding" between the Czar of Russia and the Emperors of Germany and Austro-Hungary rather than an actual treaty. A "gentlemen's agreement" it might have been called, if that term had been in existence forty years ago.

BISMARCK ORIGINATED TRIPLE ALLIANCE

The first German Kaiser, Wilhelm I, grandfather of the incumbent, was enough of an old-fashioned gentleman to

hesitate when Bismarck suggested the Triple Alliance, lest the new arrangement should prove at variance with agreements already in existence.

But when the "Iron Prince" pointed out to him the growing cordiality of France and Russia and the dangers entailed upon Germany by the existence of a hostile power on each side of his Empire, Russia to the east and France to the west, the old man forgot the gentleman in the Emperor, turned his back on his brother Kaisers, and gave his assent.

Though, as has been said, the exact terms of the Triple Alliance have been kept secret, its general purpose is known to have been one of mutual defense against military pressure from the east and the west. Italy's identity of interest has never been entirely clear but, for that matter, Italy's position has long been one of isolation on the political map of Europe and she has been torn in divers directions by conflicting interests.

Her people, already overburdened by taxation, have always resented the military and naval expenditures required to maintain a place in line with her comparatively rich and martial allies. Doubtless this consideration, accented by the cost of her recent wars in Africa, had weight with the statesmen of Italy in postponing, if not altogether avoiding, the cost of a war in Europe whose outcome could not be foreseen but out of which she could hardly expect to get any advantage. If she consented in the end to keep the treaty as Germany and Austro-Hungary interpreted it, it was as a choice of evils.

Ten years ago, when the term of the Alliance was approaching, it was observed that the relations between France and Italy had grown and were still growing more amicable.

A DESPERATE CHARGE OF FRENCH CAVALRY

GERMAN GUNNERS IN HIDING FROM AERIAL ATTACK

France had withdrawn the obstacles which she had interposed to Italian aspirations in the direction of Tripoli and Italy had signified her willingness that France should have a free hand in Morocco. In addition, the common Latin blood of the two nations and the traditional distrust and hatred of Austria spoke loudly with the Italians for a cessation of an alliance which connoted hostility to France.

But meantime two "dual alliances" had sprung up, between France and Russia and between England and Japan and apprehension lest Italy should come to a closer understanding with France spurred Germany to greater activity than ever to renew the alliance. Inducements were held out to Italy in the form of more favorable treatment of her commercial products and it is supposed, though as usual the negotiations were secret, that Italy was told that she would no longer he required to keep up her military expenditures on the scale of her allies.

THE ALLIANCE RENEWED IN 1902.

Whatever the inducements, they proved sufficient to overcome the scruples of Italy and the Alliance was renewed. A new treaty was signed at Berlin June 26, 1902, which prolonged the Triple Alliance for a term of six years. Count von Beulow, Chancellor of the German Empire, made a public announcement that the Alliance was "entirely pacific," that it contained no obligations to maintain military or naval forces up to any level and that, in a word, it corresponded to a "natural and historic balance of power" and was intended solely to preserve the peace of the world. In this, the people of the contracting powers apparently acquiesced.

Kaiser Wilhelm II is the dominant power in the Triple Alliance largely because he dominates the Austrians of German blood just as he dominates Teutonic sentiment at home.

Bismarck said of Bulgaria when that state instead of Servia was the stormy petrel of the Balkans that "All Bulgaria was not worth the bones of a single Pomeranian grenadier." In supporting Austria in her demands upon Servia the Kaiser risked the bones of many thousands of grenadiers in a question of the honor of his ally.

THE TRIPLE ENTENTE

Against the Triple Alliance there has grown up in Europe a rival, not to say a defensive, alliance. It also is "triple." By token it includes three great powers—all that were left in Europe after the two kaisers had joined hands with Italy. England, France and Russia—these comprise the Triple Entente, or Triple Understanding.

The Triple Entente was formed primarily to offset the military strength of the Triple Alliance, but it also had regard to Germany's growth as a commercial power, which was well illustrated when a great German steamship, new from the yards at Stettin, steamed into New York harbor in the summer of 1913 with a bronze eagle at her prow bearing this legend: "Mein Feld ist die Welt,"—My field is the world.

The rationale of the Triple Entente was to isolate Germany as a military power with Russia on her eastern frontier, France on the west and the British fleet free to act in the North Sea and the Mediterranean.

It was inevitable, therefore, that the powers of the Triple Entente should act as a unit when Germany drew the sword to uphold her ally, Austria-Hungary. Although the great European war of 1914 came as a surprise to the world it had been prepared for through the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente.

ROUTE OF ARMY THROUGH PALESTINE

CHAPTER XVI

PAN-SLAVISM VS. PAN-GERMANISM

Racial Hatred Primary Cause of the War, with Over-Armament a Contributing Factor—Disruption of Turkish Empire Hastened Coming Conflict—Pan-Germanism Against Pan-Slavism—Definition of the Two Terms—Deeply Rooted Racial Hatred Apparent Everywhere—Servia Once a Mighty Empire Subjugated by Turkey—Servia's Struggle for Thirty-five Years for a Seaport Checkmated by Austria-Hungary—Growth of Pan-German Movement—Deep-Seated Reason for Racial Hatred—The Rule of the Hohenzollerns Versus the Rule of the Czar.

IT HAD been long foreseen that a great European war was inevitable, and that millions upon millions of dollars would have to be spent and tens of thousands of lives would have to be sacrificed before the European atmosphere would clear.

The great increase of armaments during the decade preceding the outbreak of hostilities had been made with the coming conflict in view.

When the European war storm broke in its full force it fulfilled the prediction that it would be the greatest the world had ever seen. More men were involved. More territory was affected. Boundary lines of nations were changed.

Racial hatred and over-armament were at the root of the situation which resulted in the war in Europe. One nation was angered because of the loss of territory. Another was jealous of a neighbor's growing military power. Others had ambitions that up to the beginning of the war had not been realized. War alone could settle these differences.

Before we can understand the significance of war, we must consider the question of the "nationals," or of the "races," as it is sometimes called.

German was spoken by 80,000,000 people, of which 10,000,000 were in Austria and 2,000,000 in Hungary. Germany has more than 3,000,000 Slavs, chiefly Polish. Only a third of Austria's 30,000,000 population is German, the remainder being Slav. Of these there are 6,000,000 Czechs or Bohemians, 5,000,000 Poles, 3,500,000 Ruthenians, and 1,250,000 Slovenes.

In Hungary the Magyar element, 10,000,000 in number, is equaled by the non-Magyar, made up roughly of 2,000,000 Germans, 2,000,000 Slovaks, 500,000 Ruthenians, 3,000,000 Serbo-Croats, all of the Slavic tongue, and about 3,000,000 Roumanians, who do not speak Slav at all.

The population of Montenegro, about half a million, are Slavs of the Servian branch. Roumanians are of mixed origin, but the Roumanian tongue is spoken by 12,000,000, of which approximately half are in Roumania. The remaining millions are found in the dual monarchy, Servia, Bulgaria and Russia.

The millions of Bohemians had become almost entirely Germans, and never before have they been so thoroughly Slavic as today.

One of the ruling passions of the Bohemian people has always been hostility to Germany. It was not many years ago that the language of the Hungarian Parliament was Latin. Magyar was held fit only for peasant talk. At the outbreak of the war the Magyar and Slav were marked by as strong bitterness as between German and Pole.

The sympathies of the Hungarian Roumanians were with the flag and the King of Roumania, rather than with their country or with the Emperor of the Dual Monarchy. The House of Hapsburg, by holding the sympathy of the Poles of Galicia, caused them to elect to remain subjects of Austria, rather than suffer the fate of Poles in Prussia or Russia. The hope of a reunited Poland, however was as strong in Galicia as among other Poles.

ANCIENT SERVIAN EMPIRE

Servia was once an empire, and at one time very nearly overcame the Byzantine Empire. Under the rule of the mighty Dushan, she made extensive conquests, and soon comprehended Macedonia, Albania, Thessaly, northern Greece and a part of Bulgaria. Dushan took an imperial crown, with the title of Emperor of the Serbs and the Greeks. This was the height of its glory. The empire, though brilliant, did not last long, for, under subsequent rulers, it fell to pieces, and by 1453, less than a century later, the whole Serb people, including those of Servia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Montenegro and Macedonia, were overwhelmed by the Ottomans. In 1521, by permanent annexation, they passed into the hands of Turkey, where they suffered and struggled against oppression for 400 years.

Servia practically secured autonomy in 1816. In 1875 and 1876 insurrections broke out in this province, in Bosnia, Bulgaria and others, and the atrocities committed by the Turkish soldiery in suppressing them caused a thrill of horror throughout the civilized world. Russia took occasion to interfere in behalf of the religious freedom of the provinces, and demanded guarantees of the Turkish government which the latter refused to grant. War accordingly ensued, during which the Russian armies, having invaded the Ottoman dominions both in Europe and Asia, gained several important victories.

The war was closed by the treaty of Berlin, in 1878, negotiated under the influence and direction of the leading powers of Europe, a congress of whose representatives met in that city. By this treaty Turkey suffered a great loss of territory. She was obliged to consent to the formation of the principalities of Bulgaria and Servia, with the partial independence of East Rumelia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the government of the last to be administered by Austria-Hungary.

In 1859 the Turkish dependencies Moldavia and Wallachia were united and a principality formed from them, to which the name of Roumania was given. The independence of this State was acknowledged by the Sultan of Turkey in 1861, and twenty years later it assumed the rank and dignity of a kingdom.

The Serbs, though newly freed from Turkey, had been arbitrarily divided, and part of them given over to a yoke just as hateful as that of the Moslem had been. In the five years' bitter fight which followed, Servia gave the other provinces her entire sympathy and such material aid as her

impoverished condition would permit. It always seemed to be impossible to crush this race of fighters. Not even the powerful army of occupation that always was maintained there has been strong enough to control the sentiment of the people.

FIGHT FOR A SEAPORT

Through all the years between the Berlin treaty and the Balkan war Servia struggled for a seaport, and at every turn was checkmated by Austria. Her aspirations, both politically and economically, were blocked systematically and persistently by the dual monarchy. With a persistence which to Servia was maddening, Austria-Hungary denied her direct access to the coast or even railway connection with the Adriatic. To the failure to gain this end Servia attributed her slow commercial development and the difficulty of realizing on her resources.

Servia, considering herself the natural center for the South Slav kingdom, and having obtained by force of arms a seaport for her plums and her pigs, fought bitterly to prevent being absorbed, as she saw Bosnia absorbed by Austria.

The Pan-Germanism movement had its inception in Austria at the close of the Franco-Prussian war. To this day there was a growing desire on the part of much of its German element for union with the German Empire. Between 1890 and 1894 there were many appeals urging the union of all Germanic peoples. A movement already 100 years old was crystallized in the latter year by the founding of the Alldeutscher Verband, which has conducted a propaganda ever since throughout the German world, and which has had ad-

herence in the Austrian parliament. According to the league, the War of 1870 with France only made it plain that it was Germany's desire to enter into closer political and economic connection with Austria, The Netherlands and Switzerland, comprising the other German States.

It may therefore be readily seen that there was a deep-seated reason for Austria's hostility to Servia in particular, some reason that far transcended in importance the immediate act, the assassination of the crown prince of Austria by a Servian fanatic, that brought the conflict into being. It is also clearly seen that it was not to be removed by mediations or conferences, which, at best, could only have postponed it. It was Pan-Slavism against Pan-Germanism, titanic forces which later faced each other over miles of serried bayonets, and demonstrated that this clash of arms had been written in the book of fate, for wherever Germans and Slavs stand face to face in the countries of Eastern Europe there are always the possibilities of war.

CZAR AS LEADER OF THE SLAVS

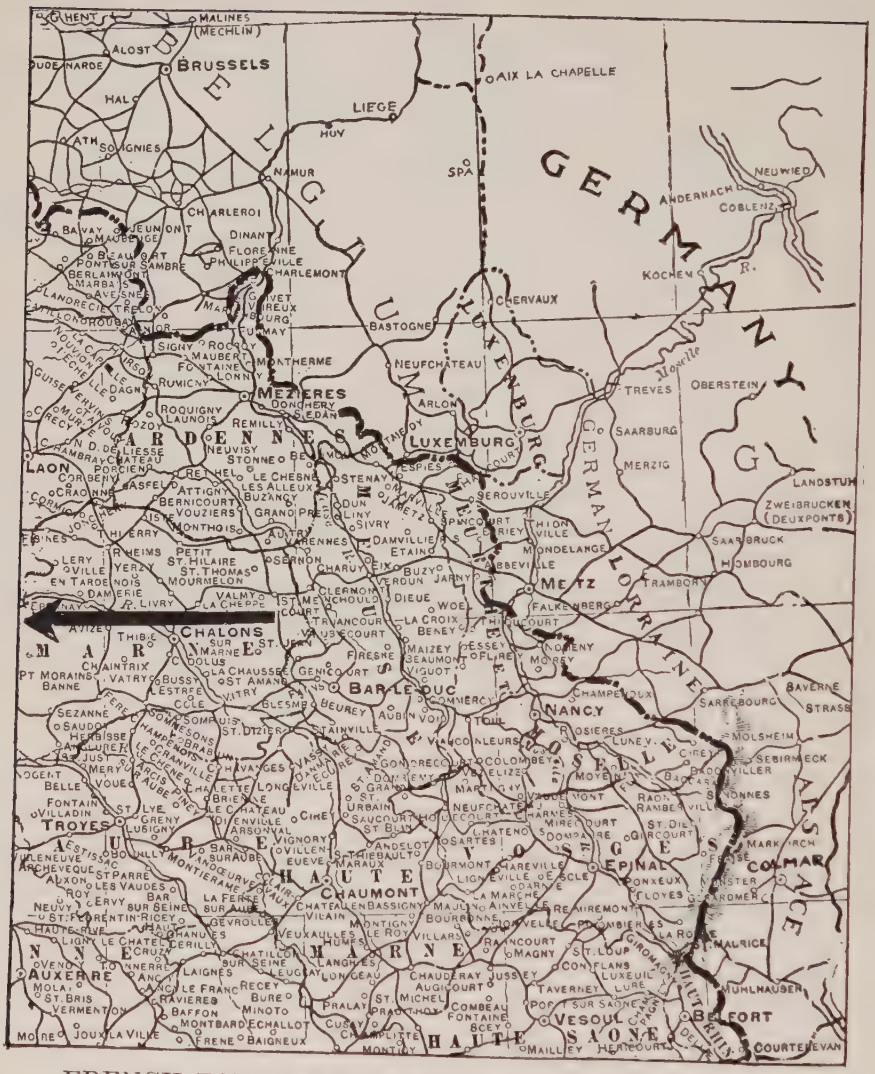
Pan-Germanism, which had existed 100 years, recognized in Pan-Slavism a menacing foe that had welded Russia and Servia into a community of sentiment. And when Russia joined hands with Servia it was defense not so much of Servia as of a menaced Pan-Slavism. She would have done as much for any Slav people threatened by Pan-Germanism. By the act of joining hands with Servia the Czar became the virtual leader of the Slav people.

Pitted against him was the German Emperor, or, to be more exact, the King of Prussia, and Europe could only

make her choice between the rule of the Hohenzollerns and the rule of the Czar. There was the key to all policies of Eastern Europe. There was only one policy, one cause, one quarrel. Every event, from the bullet of the assassin, on June 28, to the declaration of war, five weeks later, took its place in the drama of conflict between the German and the Slav.

A few years before, over in Alexandria, in Egypt, Abbas Effendi, the head of the Behaists, said that he expected a great world war which would overwhelm humanity. Then, having in this bitter school learned the lesson of the waste and cost and needlessness of the anachronism of war, the world would enter upon the long-dreamed era of universal peace.

That prophecy is also the judgment of most trained observers of international conditions. The student at Sarajevo, whose mad pistol slaughtered the heir to a throne, suddenly called all mankind to school to learn the lesson of peace and brotherhood, written in letters of blood and fire.



FRENCH TOWNS BETWEEN PARIS AND GERMANY

CHAPTER XVII

MODERN METHODS OF WARFARE

Weapons Used by Modern Armies and Navies—Machine Guns—The Submarine—The Aeroplane—Present Day Ammunition—Mines on Land and Sea—Modern War's Death Power—Submarines of Warring Powers—The Chemical Mine—Classes of Mines—Explosives Used—Placing of Destroyers—How Japan Treated Mines Planted by Russia—Attack on Modern Mine Field—Invention of Mines.

THE weapons used in the wars of the late nineteenth century were antique compared to the weapons with which modern armies are equipped. The death dealing power of modern arms, it has been estimated by many military men, is 50 per cent more powerful than that of the weapons used in the civil war. Long range guns, the submarine, the aeroplane and the increased death capacity of the ammunition used, all go to make up an armament of marvellous destructive force.

Nor are these the only things which make for increased mortality in modern war. Floating mines and other things to trap the unwary on the water are a terror to the naval vessel and even the peaceful fishing smack. Death lurks under the rolling waters of the sea just as he sprints on the modern battlefield. It is not the leisurely secretiveness of death

under the waters such as an undertow is to the swimmer, nor is it death of the old battlefields. The reaper on land and sea practically races to his victim so deadly are the implements used.

SUBMARINES OF WARRING POWERS

Submarines have been developed to a high stage in recent years. They can lay mines and if necessary rise to the surface of the water and give battle. The torpedoes they fire cut the water like so many knives and few of them go wide of their marks. At the outbreak of the 1914 war Great Britain had sixty-four submarines. France was second with sixty-one and Russia had twenty-nine. Japan had about a dozen. On the other hand, Germany and Austria could only muster twenty-four submarines, the Kaiser had eighteen of these.

The long range guns of comparatively recent invention are a terror on land and on sea. Gatling guns and other types of the machine artillery spit death at the rate of so much a second. They have mowed down many thousands since they were first perfected. And with all these death dealing implements goes the ammunition of a death dealing power that would have caused army and navy men the world over to have laughed at its possibilities not so many years ago. Deadly chemicals are used in mines on land and sea.

POWER OF CHEMICAL MINES

The chemical mine is a non-controllable affair. It is a large iron cylinder filled with dynamite. Projecting from

its surface are a number of plungers encased in lead tubes. Any one of these plungers when struck breaks a tube of sulphuric acid imbedded in powdered sugar and chlorate of potash. The explosion that results would break the back of a super Dreadnought.

A country can mine its own waters as it pleases, but on the high seas a mine must become ineffective within an hour. That practically means that only torpedoes can be used beyond the three-mile limit, and they too come under the hour rule.

That is a rule that, it has been charged, was not observed by the Japanese in their war with Russia.

There are no regulation mines for nations. Great secrecy is attached to them as coast defenses. Plans for mining harbors are usually intrusted to only three officers. Not even their clerks know the secrets of location and composition.

There are two classes, controllable and non-controllable mines. The former are always manipulated from shore.

Then there are three kinds of mines. Fixed mines mean those that are set off by electricity from shore. There also are those that have trigger indicators to warn shore stations that a ship is over the mine. The triggers do not explode the mines. When a ship hits one there is a signal on shore. These are called observation mines. Both fixed and observation mines are controllable.

Then there are those that are set off by a ship hitting the triggers. They are contact mines and are non-controllable. If the plunger of the contact mine operates a firing pin it becomes a mechanical mine. If it breaks a tube of acid it is a chemical mine. An electrical mine can be made either controllable or non-controllable.

GERMAN GUNS SHOOTING FRENCH AEROPLANES

A MODERN WAR MACHINE IN ACTION

Dynamite and gun cotton are the explosives ordinarily employed. The explosive must be little affected by moisture, have a high destructive factor and yet must not be so sensitive as to be discharged by the action of the waves.

In placing mines an effort is made to arrange them so that a war vessel passing up a harbor must come within the destructive radius of one of the mines in the system. They should always be placed in channels and usually at the narrowest part. From a military standpoint mines are obstacles and their function is to delay, the position of the mine field being such that when the enemy passes over them it will be under the most destructive fire of the defense on shor

WHEN JAPAN SHOWED CONTEMPT

The shore guns should be able to prevent torpedo boats and submarines from destroying the mines. The Russian mines in Talien Bay did not prevent the Japanese from eventually using Dalny as a base from which to operate against Port Arthur. They were planted beyond supporting distance of the shore guns and the Japanese openly picked up the mines and went ahead.

Buoyant mines are held below the surface by a steel mooring rope at such a distance that the mine will be struck by the hull of a vessel below its armor belt. The ordinary form of a buoyant mine is a sphere, the buoyancy of a hollow sphere being greater than that of any other volume having the same skin thickness.

The electrical mine has a steel case, inside of which is the charge. In the center of the charge is a metallic case containing the fuse, a detonating charge, a special device for

firing at will and a circuit closer. Then there is an insulated wire cable running out of the bottom near the anchoring rope and connecting the fuse and the firing apparatus on shore.

Ground mines are sometimes placed in water less than 35 feet deep. They rest on the bottom. They can be made of iron or steel. The mine itself contains the charge, the fuse, the detonating charges and the device for firing at will, but the circuit closer is placed in a buoy attached to the mine.

The mine operating room on shore contains generators, switchboards and a gallery for the cables extending to the water.

Mines are usually placed about 100 feet apart so that the explosion of one may not injure an adjacent one.

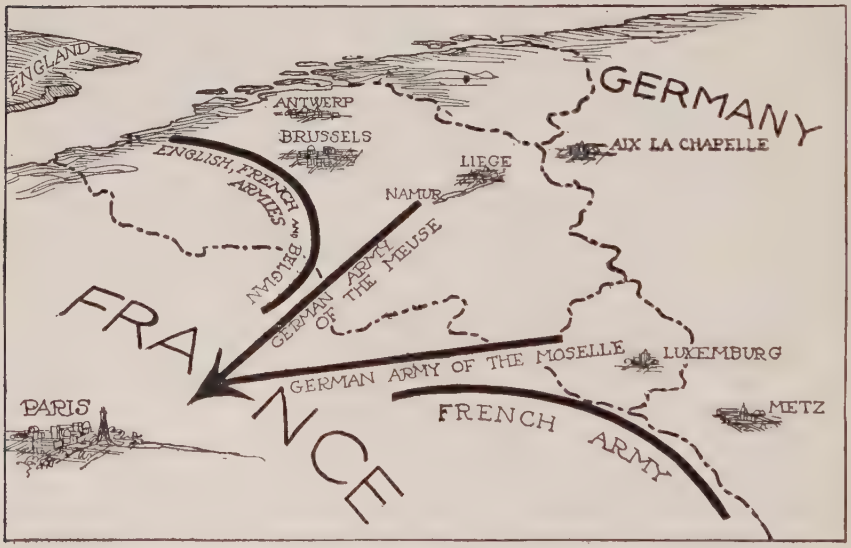
HOW MINES ARE CONQUERED

An attack on a mine field consists of countermining, sweeping or creeping. Countermining is exploding charges that will destroy the mines or cables. Sweeping is dragging a long cable attached to two boats across the mine field. When a mine is located its cable is destroyed by a charge placed by a diver. Creeping consists in dragging hooks along the bottom to locate cables which are then severed.

The earliest record of the use of apparatus similar to the submarine mine was in the siege of Antwerp in 1585. An Italian engineer filled several small vessels with gunpowder, arranged a clockwork with triggers in their magazines and floated the vessels downstream against a bridge which had been erected by the enemy. The scheme was successful and led to the development of mine defense.

David Bushnell, a native of Maine, proved in 1775 that a charge of gunpowder could be exploded under water. Two years later he floated kegs of gunpowder down the Delaware River at Philadelphia to attack British shipping there. The ships had been taken into docks to avoid the ice in the river, so the plan failed, but the attempt became known as the "Battle of Kegs."

In the Franco-Prussian war of 1870, the superiority of the French over the Germans in the matter of ships was greatly neutralized by the latter in their use of electrical, mechanical and dummy mines for harbor defense. The moral effect of the planted German mines was sufficient then to keep the French fleet at a respectful distance.



ROUTE OF THE GERMAN ARMY—ON TO PARIS

CHAPTER XVIII

SERVIA AND HER PEOPLE

Most Picturesque of the Countries at War—The Servian Empire Overthrown by the Turks in 1389 Regained in Part by a Revolution in 1804—People Love Politics, Poetry, Music and Dancing—Description of Their Brilliant Costumes and Chief Characteristics.

THE most picturesque of all the countries engaged in the great European War of 1914 is Servia, once an empire, which was overthrown by the Turks in 1389. A revolution led by a peasant in 1804 gained Servia her independence, but on lesser scale in territory.

The population of Servia is about 2,750,000. More than four-fifths of this number belong to the Serbo-Croatian branch of the Slavonic race. Servia is a land without aristocracy or middle class. Instead it possesses an army of placemen and officials; but these being recruited mainly from the peasantry do not disturb the prevailing social equality. In 1900 there was neither pauper nor workhouse in the country.

The people, less thrifty and industrious than the Bulgars, less martial than the Montenegrins, less versatile and intellectual than the Rumans, value comfort far more highly than progress. A moderate amount of work enables them to live

SERVIAN TROOPS LEAVING NISH

SERVIAN REINFORCEMENTS OCCUPYING SHELTER TRENCH
BEFORE ADRIANOPLE

well enough, and to pass their evenings at the village wine-shop; although, being a sober race, they meet there rather to discuss politics than to drink.

Of politics they never tire; and still greater is their devotion to music, poetry and dancing. Perhaps their most characteristic dance is the kolo, sometimes performed by as many as 100 men and women, in a single serpentine line.

All classes delight in hearing or intoning the endless romances which celebrate the feats of their national heroes; for every true Serb lives as much in the past as in the present, and mediævel wars still furnish themes for new legends and ballads. It is largely this enthusiasm for the past which keeps alive the desire for the reunion of the whole race, in another Servian empire, like that overthrown by the Turks in 1389.

BRILLIANT FESTIVAL COSTUMES

The fasts of the Orthodox Church are strictly kept; while the festivals, which are hardly less numerous, are celebrated even by the Servian Moslems. As in Bulgaria and Roumania, the Slava, or patron saint's day, is set aside for rejoicing. A Servian crowd at a festival presents a medley of brilliant and picturesque costumes, scarlet being the favorite color. Men wear a long smock of homespun linen, beneath red or blue waistcoats with trousers of white frieze. The women's dress consists of a similar smock, a zouave jacket of embroidered velvet and two brightly colored aprons tied over a white skirt, one in front and one behind. The headdress is a small red cap, tambourine-shaped, and strings of coins are coiled in the hair, or worn as necklaces or bracelets.

In this manner a farmer's wife will often decorate herself with her entire dowry. During the cold months both sexes wrap themselves in thick woolen coats or sheepskins with the fleece inwards; both are also shod with corded sandals.

The Roumanian women retain their native costumes and are further distinguished by the wooden cradles, slung over the shoulders, in which they carry their babies; the Servian mothers prefer a canvas bag. Women weave most of the garments and linen for their families besides sharing in every kind of manual labor. Turkish ideas prevail about their social position, but so highly are their services valued that parents are often unwilling to see their daughters marry; and wives are, in many cases, older than their husbands.

BELGIANS ON MYTHS AND CHARMS AND OMENS

At a funeral the coffin is left open to the last minute—a custom found everywhere in the Balkans and said to have been introduced by the Turks, who found that coffins were a convenient place for hiding arms. The same practice, however, is common in Spain and Portugal. Few countries are richer in folklore and myth than Servia. The peasants believe in charms and omens, in vampires, ghosts, the evil eye, and many other things. Even at the beginning of the twentieth century, education had done little to dispel such superstitions.

The scarcity of labor prevents the growth of any great manufacturing industries. There is no native artisan class; for, except in rare cases, the people value their independence too highly to work in factories, or even to enter domestic service. A large proportion of the artisans throughout

Servia are Austro-Hungarians or gypsies. The chief manufacturing industries are those for which the country supplies raw material, notably meat packing, flour-milling, brewing, tanning, and the weaving or spinning of hemp, flax and wool. There are also iron foundries, potteries and sugar, tobacco and celluloid factories.

A law of 1898 authorizes the government to grant concessions on very favorable terms to foreign capitalists willing to promote mining and manufactures in Servia; but in 1910 the number of large industrial establishments in the kingdom did not exceed sixty, nor the number of hands employed 5,000.

There are a few domestic industries, such as the manufacture of sandals, and of the hand-woven carpets and rugs made at Pirot, which are popular throughout the Balkan Peninsula.

CHAPTER XIX

THE REPUBLIC OF FRANCE

A Nation Great in Art and Literature, With a War-Ridden History, Is Made Up of Many Different Elements Whose Chief Industry Is Agriculture—The Bretons, Basques and Flemings Still Retain Their Original Customs and Distinctive Languages.

THE most thrilling and stirring chapters of European history are found in the history of France and in her transition from a monarchy to a republic is to be found, perhaps, the reddest chapter in all history—the French Revolution—a chapter written from end to end in blood, but which has been an inspiration to all liberty-loving peoples.

With first rank in art and literature, she has had more than her share of wars.

Although, broadly speaking, we refer to the French people as Gauls, the French nation is formed of many different elements. Iberian influence in the southwest, Ligurian on the shores of the Mediterranean, Germanic immigrations from east of the Rhine and Scandinavian immigrations in the northwest have tended to produce ethnographical diversities which ease of intercommunication and other modern conditions have failed to obliterate.

The so-called Celtic type, exemplified by individuals of rather less than average height, brown-haired and brachycephalic, is the fundamental element in the nation and peoples the region between the Seine and Garonne; in Southern France a different type, dolichocephalic, short and with black hair and eyes, predominates.

The tall, fair and blue-eyed individuals who are found to the northeast of the Seine and in Normandy appear to be nearer in race to the Scandinavian and Germanic invaders; a tall and darker type, with long faces and aquiline noses, occurs in some parts of Franche-Comte and Champagne, the Vosges and Perche.

THE BRETONS, BASQUES AND FLEMINGS RETAIN ORIGINAL CUSTOMS

The Bretons, who most nearly represent the Celts, and the Basques, who inhabit parts of the western versant of the Pyrenees, have preserved their distinctive languages and customs and are ethnically the most interesting sections of the nation; the Flemings of French Flanders, where Flemish is still spoken, are also racially distinct.

The immigration of Belgians into the northern departments and of Italians into those of the southeast exercise a constant modifying influence on the local populations.

During the nineteenth century the population of France increased to a less extent than that of any other country (except Ireland) for which definite data exist, and during the last twenty years of that period it was little more than stationary. The population in 1914 was about 40,000,000. In 1906 it was 39,252,245. In 1876 it was 36,905,788.

About two-thirds of the French departments, comprising a large proportion of those situated in mountainous districts and in the basin of the Garonne, where the birth-rate is especially feeble, show a decrease in population. Those which show an increase usually possess large centers of industry and are already thickly populated, like the Seine and Pas-de-Calais. In most departments the principal cause of decrease of population is the attraction of great centers.

WINE GROWING REGIONS MOST THICKLY POPULATED

The average density of population in France is about 190 to the square mile, the tendency being for the large towns to increase at the expense of the small towns as well as the rural communities. In 1901, 37 per cent of the population lived in centers containing more than 2,000 inhabitants, whereas in 1861 the proportion was 28 per cent. Besides the industrial districts, the most thickly populated regions include the coast of the department of Seine-Inferieure and Brittany, the wine-growing region of the Bordelais and the Riviera.

While a goodly proportion of the French are engaged in agricultural pursuits the development of machinery in France as in other countries, whether run by steam, water power, or other motive forces, has played a great part in the promotion of industry; the increase in the amount of steam horse-power employed in industrial establishments is, to a certain degree, an index to the activity of the country as regards manufactures.

With the exception of Loire, Bouches-due-Rhone and Rhone, the chief industrial departments of France are to be found in the north and northeast of the country.

FRENCH INFANTRY WAITING THE ATTACK

A DESPERATE ATTEMPT TO CAPTURE THE COLORS

The department of the Seine, comprising Paris and its suburbs, which has the largest manufacturing population, is largely occupied with the manufacture of dress, millinery and articles of luxury, but it plays the leading part in almost every great branch of industry with the exception of spinning and weaving.

The typically industrial region of France is the Department of Nord, the seat of the woolen industry, but also prominently concerned in other textile industries, in metal-working and in a variety of other manufactures, fuel for which is supplied by its coal fields.

A THRIFTY AGRICULTURAL PEOPLE

Despite the great interest taken in manufacturing industries in the French Republic, agriculture can well be called the leading pursuit of the nation. Approximately 17,000,000 inhabitants depend on the fields for their means of livelihood, although only about 6,500,000 actually work at agricultural labors. Ninety-four per cent of the area of France is cultivatable land and the French with their innate thriftiness have not allowed much of this to remain uncultivated.

France's flag floats over other lands than its home in Continental Europe. The French have dependencies in Asia, Africa, America, the Indian Ocean and Oceania. For administrative purposes the government is divided into eighty-six departments. The executive power is vested in the President of the Republic, while the legislative power lies in the hands of two chambers—the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies.

CHAPTER XX

THE GERMAN EMPIRE

Second in Area and Third in Population Among the Warring Nations of Europe—The Extent and Diversity of Its Commerce—An Empire Made up of Prussia and the German Confederation—Its Form of Government—The Kaiser Supreme in War.

GERMANY, or more properly, the German Empire, is in central Europe. The territories occupied by peoples of distinctively Teutonic race and language are commonly designated as German and in this sense may be taken to include, besides Germany proper, the German-speaking sections of Austria, Switzerland and Holland.

The German empire was formed in 1871 by virtue of treaties between the North German Confederation and the South German states and by acquisition, in the peace of Frankfort (May 10, 1871) of Alsace-Lorraine and embraces all the countries of the former German Confederation with the exception of Austria, Luxemburg, Limburg and Liechtenstein. The sole addition to the empire proper since that date is the island of Heligoland, ceded by Great Britain in 1890, but Germany has acquired extensive colonies in Africa and the Pacific.

THE GERMAN FRONTIERS

The empire is bounded on the southeast and south by Austria and Switzerland for 1,659 miles; on the southwest by France 242 miles; on the west by Luxemburg, Belgium and Holland, a total of 558 miles. The length of German coast on the Baltic is 927 miles and on the North Sea it is 293 miles, the intervening land boundary on the north of Schleswig being only 47 miles. The eastern boundary of 843 miles is with Russia. The total length of the frontiers is 4,569 miles.

The area of the German empire is 208,830 square miles. The population is 64,925,993. In area, the German empire occupied the third place among European nations, and in point of population the second, coming in point of area immediately after Russia and Austria-Hungary and in population next to Russia.

Twenty-six states and divisions make up the empire. These are as follows: The kingdoms of Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony and Wurttemberg; the grand duchies of Baden, Hesse, Mecklenburg - Schwerin, Mecklenburg - Strelitz, Oldenburg, and Saxe-Weimar; the duchies of Anhalt, Brunswick, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha and Saxe-Meiningen; the principalities of Lippe-Detmold, Reuss-Greiz, Reuss-Schleiz, Schaumberge-Lippe, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen, and Waldeck-Pyrmont; the free towns of Bremen, Hamburg, and Lubeck and the imperial territory of Alsace-Lorraine.

In 1900 the German speaking population of the empire amounted to 51,883,131. Of the inhabitants speaking other languages there were: Polish, 3,086,489; French (mostly in

Lorraine), 211,679; Masurian, 142,049; Danish, 141,061; Lithuanian, 106,305; Cassubian, 100,213; Wendish, 93,032; Dutch, 80,361; Italian, 65,961; Moravian, 64,382; Czech, 43,061; Frisian, 20,677; English, 20,217; Walloon, 11,841.

In 1905 there were resident within the empire, 1,028,560 subjects of foreign states as compared with 778,698 in 1900. Of these 17,293 were subjects of Great Britain and Ireland, 17,184 of the United States and 20,584 of France.

Despite the enormous development of industries and commerce, agriculture and cattle-rearing still represent in Germany a considerable portion of its economic wealth. Almost two-thirds of the soil is occupied by arable land, pastures and meadows, and of the whole area, 91 per cent was classed as productive.

The largest estates are found in the Prussian provinces of Pomerania, Posen and Saxony, and in East and West Prussia, while in the Russian Rhine province, in Baden and Wurttemberg, small farms are the rule. The same kinds of cereal crops are cultivated in all parts of the empire, but in the south and west wheat is predominant and in the north and east rye, barley and oats.

GERMAN MANUFACTURES

In no other country of the world has the manufacturing industry made such strides as in Germany in recent years. The chief manufactures may roughly be distributed geographically as follows: Prussia, Alsace-Lorraine, Bavaria and Saxony are the chief seats of the iron manufacture. Steel is produced in Rhenish Prussia. Saxony is predominant in the production of textiles, though Silesia and Westphalia manufacture linen. Cotton goods are largely pro-

duced in Baden, Bavaria, Alsace-Lorraine, and Wurttemberg, woolens and worsteds in Saxony and the Rhine province, silk in Rhenish Prussia, Alsace and Baden. Glass and porcelain are largely produced in Bavaria; lace in Saxony; tobacco in Hamburg and Bremen; chemicals in the Prussian province of Saxony; watches in Saxony and Nuremberg; toys in Bavaria; gold and silver filigree in Berlin and Aschaffenburg and beer in Prussia and Bavaria. Germany has obtained a leading position in the markets of the world more through its iron industry than its other manufactures.

The constitution of the German empire is, in all essentials, that of the North German Confederation, which came into force in 1867. Under this the presidency of the confederation was vested in the king of Prussia and his heirs. In 1871 the king of Prussia was proclaimed German emperor. His authority as territorial sovereign extends over Prussia, not over Germany. The emperor exercises the imperial power in the name of the confederated states. In his office he is assisted by the Bundesrat which represents the governments of the individual states of Germany. The legislative functions are vested in the emperor, the Bundesrat and the Reichstag, or imperial Diet. The members of the latter are elected by universal suffrage. The executive power is in the emperor's hands. He represents the empire internationally, and can declare war if defensive, and make peace as well as enter into treaties with other nations; he also appoints and receives ambassadors. The separate states have the privilege of sending ambassadors to other courts, but all consuls abroad are officials of the empire and are named by the emperor.

CHAPTER XXI

THE GREAT RUSSIAN EMPIRE

It Comprises One-Sixth of the Land Surface of the Globe and the Greatest Diversity of Races—Its Government and Characteristics of Its People—Land of Contrasting Riches and Poverty—Nobility Spends Money Freely On Entertainments.

THE Russian Empire stretches over a vast territory in eastern Europe and northern Asia, with an area exceeding 8,660,000 square miles, or one-sixth of the land surface of the globe. It is, however, but thinly populated, including only one-twelfth of the inhabitants of the earth. Its population is 166,250,000. In this population is the greatest diversity of nationalities belonging to any old world nation, due to the amalgamation or absorption by the Slav race of a variety of Ural-Altaicstocks, of Turko-Tartars, Turko-Mongols and various Caucasian races.

In Russia there are Aryans, Semies, Ural-Altaians and Caucasians as well as Koryaks, Chukchis, Chinese, Japanese and Koreans.

Under the Aryans come the Slavs, the Lithuanians, Latin and Teutonic races, and Iranians.

Under the Ural-Altaians, the Turko-Tartars, Finns and Mongols.

Under the Caucasians the Georgian races and Caucasians.

The Slavs can be divided into the Great Russians, Little Russians, White Russians, Poles and other Slavs. Romanians, Germans, Greeks and Swedes make up the Latin and Teutonic races and the Armenians, Persians, Tajiks, Talyshes, Tates, Kurds, Ossetes and Gypsies the Iranians.

The Finns are the Esthonians, Finns, Lapps, Mordvinians, Karelians, Cheremisses, Syryenians, Permiaks and Votyaks.

Under the Turko-Tartars come the Tartars, Chuvashes, Bashkirs, Turks, Turkomans, Kirghiz, Sarts, Uzbegs, Yakuts and Kara-kalpaks. The Kalmucks and Buriats are the Mongols.

RUSSIA'S GOVERNMENT

Russia was described in the Almanach de Gotha for 1910 as "a constitutional monarchy under an autocratic tsar." At the head of the government is the emperor, whose power is limited only by the provisions of the fundamental laws of the empire. The Council of the Empire consists of 196 members of whom 98 are nominated by the emperor and 98 are elected. As a legislative body the powers of the council are coordinate with those of the Duma; in practice, however, it has seldom initiated legislation. The Duma, which forms the Lower House of the Russian Parliament, consists of 442 members elected by an exceedingly complicated process.

The chief occupation of seven-eighths of the population of European Russia is agriculture, but its character varies considerably according to the soil, climate and the geographical position of the different regions. Despite this agriculture stands at a low level in Russia. The landowners are often poor and suffer from want of capital and lack of enterprise,

The peasantry are impoverished and in many parts live on the verge of starvation for the greater part of the year.

Mining and its related industries are still at a very low stage of development also. With regard to Russian industry generally, the extravagant prices which have to be paid for iron goods, owing to the prohibitive tariffs, combined with the obstacles put in the way of education, hamper the development of all industries.

The wealth of Russia, consisting mainly of raw produce, the trade of the country turns chiefly on the purchase of this for export, and on the sale of manufactured and imported goods in exchange.

RUSSIAN CHARACTERISTICS

The lower classes in Russia can well be termed a downtrodden people. In many respects they are little better than serfs. This condition of life has been a subject for many authors. But despite this condition the Russians get much enjoyment out of their festival days. They are good dancers and enjoy many simple pleasures. Russia has given to the world many great thinkers and musicians.

Because of the autocratic form of the government uprisings against governmental authority, especially in the shape of attempts to take the life of high officials, have been frequent. These have been put down with an iron hand. Siberia, the land of lost hopes is the lot of political offenders. Those who have escaped the terrors of that bleak country tell thrilling stories of their experiences.

The prodigality of many Russian nobles is a common topic of gossip in European courts. Members of the Imperial

family, with their huge incomes, go to great lengths in the line of entertainment to spend the wealth which is often wrested from a hard working people.

Russian peasants delight in singing the old songs of the land and in telling and re-telling the folk-lore tales that have been handed down from generation to generation. While they have no great future to look forward to, most of them are well contented with their lot.

Advanced thinkers in Russia have done much for the peasants. Universities are becoming more and more popular and the children of the poor are taking advantage of them.

CHAPTER XXII

ALSACE-LORRAINE, THE FAIR PRIZES OF WAR

Division of Charlemagne's Vast Empire Among His Grandsons—Lothair, the Weakest, Gets as His Heritage Alsace-Lorraine Among Other Lands—Provinces a Bone of Contention Between France and Germany—France Gets Alsace and All Lorraine But the City of Strassburg by Treaty of Westphalia—Louis XIV Takes Strassburg for France—Provinces a Theatre of Operations in Franco-Prussian War—Germany Gets Them as a Price of Peace—German Government—The Zabern Affair—Characteristics of Natives.

THE provinces of Alsace-Lorraine, in whose territory there was much fighting in the early days of the war, cover together an area of 5,601 square miles. The maximum length from north to south is 145 miles; the maximum breadth is 24 miles. They may be compared with the Hudson River Valley from New York to Albany. It is not an extensive territory but many of the wars in Europe since the passing of Charlemagne have been concerned with it.

It was in 1843 that the three grandsons of Charlemagne, fighting among themselves, decided to end it by dividing their grandfather's possessions among them. They acted on that ancient principle that the lands, and the peoples dwelling

TYPE OF FRENCH MACHINE GUNS USED IN ALSACE

BATTLESHIP "HANSA"

upon them, tilling the soil in time of peace and fighting the battles in time of war, were the private property of the sovereign, ruling by the "divine right of kings." Charlemagne had ruled the whole of Europe as one united government from his capital at Aachen—the Aix la Chapelle of today which belongs to Prussia. The private possessions of the Pope of Italy alone were excepted.

Charlemagne's son, Louis le Debonnaire, was too weak to hold together such a heterogeneous empire of peoples of different race and temperament and speaking different tongues, their only bond being an official religion—that of the sovereign—and a common government. He was too weak even to rule in his own family. Long before he was dead his sons were quarrelling over their inheritance.

FIRST KING OF THE GERMANS AND FIRST KING OF THE FRANKS

The one who was the strongest, called Louis the German, had the first choice in the division and he became the first King of the Germans. The second strongest, Charles the Bold, had second choice, and he became the first King of the Franks, the people of modern France. These two brothers took land which formed a compact whole and which could be easily defended. The subjects of Charles all spoke one language, those of Louis all spoke another.

The third brother, Lothair, the weakest, had to take what was left of his father's empire, and that included what is now comprised in Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, Luxemburg, Alsace, Lorraine, and a small strip of northern Italy. It was made up of many different nationalities. It could not be easily defended because the Alps broke it into two parts, and

the narrow strip along the Rhine from the Alps to the North Sea which kept the possessions of Louis from touching those of Charles was too great a prize not to be converted by both of the two stronger brothers. They soon began to fight one another about it, each to take it from Lothair. And the troubles of the buffer states began. Alsace and Lorraine have alone remained of Lothair's kingdom to be fought over by the two great nations on either side, France and Germany.

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR

France was the banker for Sweden and in the Thirty Years' War of the seventeenth century, which Sweden fought against Austria and Germany, Sweden won and the spoils fell to the banker, France acquiring by the Treaty of Westphalia which closed the war in 1648, all of Alsace with the exception of the city of Strassburg. Germany had to give it up, as well as confirm France in the possession of Metz, in Lorraine, at this time a private appendage of the sovereign of Austria.

In 1681, during a lull of peace in the tormented provinces, Louis XIV of France, quietly surprised Strassburg and took it, so that France had that province entire. It was not until after the first French Revolution that the whole of Alsace and Lorraine went to France.

As soon as war was declared between France and Prussia, July 15, 1870, Alsace-Lorraine became the theater of operations. The first decisive battle of the war was fought in Alsace at Woerth-sur-Sauer, August 6, 1870, the French under Marshal MacMahon retreating before the Germans, led by

the Crown Prince, afterward Kaiser Frederick, father of Kaiser William II.

When Thiers, coming as the Ambassador of France to sue for peace from Germany, Bismarck laid down as the first stipulation that Alsace-Lorraine should be a price of peace. France had to let the provinces go.

GERMANS RULE ALSACE-LORRAINE

It was Bismarck's idea to treat the two provinces with the utmost kindness and benevolence. The Kaiserin's cousin, Prince von Hohenlohe, became the Governor, and although he was a dictator, his rule was kindly. Rights of citizenship were showered upon the inhabitants and they were given their own Parliament in 1874. The dictatorship was abolished in 1902. Alsace-Lorraine was given representation in the Diet at Berlin.

Between 1880 and 1885, 50,000 natives emigrated from the two provinces into France and the emigration has kept up more or less ever since. In the foreign legions of France men from these German-held provinces are enrolled in large numbers. They visit their relatives back in the old homes and Germany has complained that they returned to France with military information which Berlin did not intend for Paris to have.

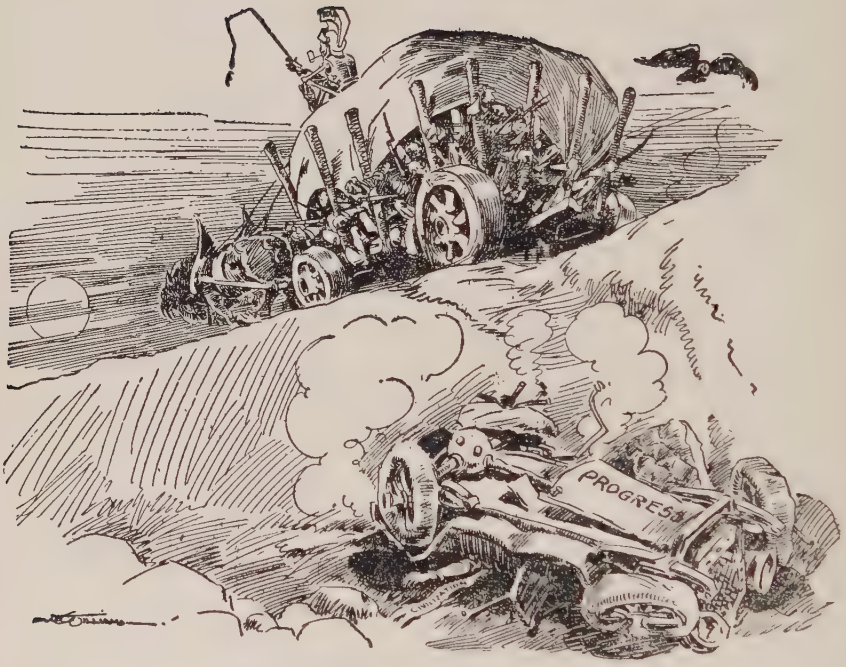
THE ZABERN AFFAIR

It was only in January, 1914, that the "Zabern affair," brought a flood of light upon conditions in Alsace and Lorraine. A young German officer, stationed at Zabern, Lieut.

Baron von Foerstner, incensed at the mocking taunts of the populace in Zabern, the little Alsatian town which has been the scene of bloody battles for ten centuries, ordered his men to charge upon the crowd. It was a grim story that the only victim was a decrepit man, caught and sabred as he was hobbling away on his crutches.

The young officer was reprimanded and a lightly punishment. The Reichstag passed a vote of censure upon the Imperial Chancellor that such things could happen in the German Empire and there the affair ended.

In Lorraine one sees the slender physique and the vivacious temperament of the French, but the skull formation of the Teuton. In Alsace, there is the giant frame and the broad face of the Teuton, with the round skull of the French. The two peoples are in reality a mixture of both. They could love the Germans or the French with equal facility. They speak the German language in large majority—that is cited as the reason why they should certainly love the Germans more than the French. But it has now been some time since the teaching of French to the children was prohibited as well as using French uniforms on the stage or using the French language on the shop signs. The language of the children soon becomes that of the parents, and the language forced by law upon commerce will e'er long become the language of the home.



PROGRESS CROWDED OFF

CHAPTER XXIII

FREDERICK THE GREAT AND THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR

Battles in Which the Ancestor of Kaiser Wilhelm II Won His Title—Fought Against Six Nations With Odds of More Than Two to One Against Him and Won—The Eleven Great Battles That Cost One Million Lives—The Great Military Genius of Prussia After Fighting Seven Years Died in Peace and Amidst Plenty.

A CENTURY and a half ago, Frederick the Great, King of Prussia, the great ancestor of Kaiser Wilhelm II, was involved in a war with practically all Europe.

Frederick the Great faced six nations with a combined population of about 90,000,000. They put into the field against him in 1757 armies numbering 425,000 men.

Against this force, Frederick was able to muster 200,000 men, the population of Prussia being at that time about 4,500,000.

Thus, the Great Frederick went into the fight at numerical odds of more than 2 to 1 against him. In reality the odds were greater because of his 200,000 men at least 50,000 were not available for the field, being sequestered as garrisons of his fortresses.

Opposed to Wilhelm II in the war of 1914 (also called the War of Six Nations) were countries having an aggre-

gate population of 308,000,000, not counting colonies or dependencies. Germany and Austria combined had a population of 116,265,000 besides that of the German colonies. Three to one therefore very nearly approximates the odds in point of population faced by the Kaiser.

THE KAISER'S ARMY COMPARED WITH FREDERICK'S

The discrepancy in armed forces is not so great. The strength of the German armies was 5,200,000 men; of the Austrian, 2,000,000; a total of 7,200,000. Against these the allies were able to muster 10,902,000, distributed thus: Russia, 5,500,000; France, 4,000,000; England, 720,000 (which did not include the forces stationed in the English possessions); Belgium, 222,000; Servia, 300,000, and Montenegro, 150,000.

Frederick the Great had no navy, so that there are no data for comparison on that score. The Kaiser entered the war with 439 fighting craft, as against 1,208 of the Allies, and 194,233 sailors and officers, to 276,784 of the Allies. Roughly speaking, the Kaiser's navy was about one to three as compared with those of the Allies.

As for aeroplanes, which played a considerable part in the Kaiser's war, Frederick the Great never saw one and might have dropped dead on the spot if he ever had. As a master of quick movement and skillful strategy with the means at his hand in the eighteenth century he was the master captain of his age and so a military genius like Napoleon I regarded him.

Austria was not an ally of Prussia in the wars of Frederick the Great. It was arrayed against him with France,

Russia, Sweden, Saxony and Poland, then a separate national entity. England, now chief of the Allies arrayed against the Kaiser was his great ancestor's chief friend, hope and dependence. There have been many shuffles and fresh deals of the diplomatic cards of Europe in the past 150 years.

FREDERICK'S CRUSHING DEFEAT AT KOLLIN

More than once during the Seven Years' War, Frederick the Great found himself completely surrounded by his foes and stricken almost to death. After his crushing defeat at the battle of Kollin, in Bohemia, June 18, 1757, when he lost 14,000 killed, wounded and taken prisoners of an army of 32,000 Frederick retired to Prague which he had been besieging with another corps. He was compelled to raise the siege and retire from Bohemia. By the time he got back to Saxony in July there remained under his banner only 70,000 of the 114,000 men whom he had led into Bohemia three months before. Undaunted, he rushed into Thuringia to face the French and their German speaking allies.

The position of the great Prussian seemed at this time hopeless. He was menaced on every side. Besides the Austrians who had just beaten him, the French, Russians and Swedes converged upon his army to destroy him. They formed a complete circle.

But Frederick was equal to the emergency. By movements of the most astounding celerity he forced the famous battle of Rossbach, the most renowned of his achievements, at which he completely overcame an army twice as large as his own, broke the cordon that surrounded him and emerged from the period of his gloom.

Another period of despair fell upon him in August, 1759, after the battle at Kunersdorf, a place in Brandenburg near the Oder River. The army of Frederick was completely routed. In a contest with 78,000 Russians he lost more than 18,000 of his 48,000 men. He himself suffered severely. Two horses were shot under him. His clothes were riddled with bullet holes and a gold case which he wore over his heart was crushed by a bullet.

"Is there no cursed bullet can reach me?" he exclaimed. To his minister he wrote on the evening after the battle: "I hold all for lost. I shall not survive the ruin of my country. Farewell forever."

That night he resigned his command to one of his generals and directed that the army should swear allegiance to his nephew.

But out of the despair and apparent ruin Frederick survived. His enemies neglected to push their advantage and he again cut through the ring that surrounded him. After varying fortunes in which more than once all seemed lost, the Russians retreated across the Oder and he was once more upon his feet.

Frederick the Great's reputation as a military genius rests chiefly upon eleven battles fought during the Seven Years' War. Some he won, some he lost. At times the odds were three to one against him, but he never shrank from a conflict on that account. The threatre of his operations was confined to a topographical square measuring not more than 300 miles on a side. Though there were of course no railroads in his day to facilitate mobilization, it is not easy

to make comparison between his achievements and those of the Kaiser which, after the intervention of Japan were world-wide.

THE ELEVEN BATTLES OF FREDERICK THE GREAT

Here is a brief chronicle of Frederick the Great's battles:

At Lobositz on the Elbe in Bohemia, October 1, 1756, with 30,000 men he defeated the Austrians with 42,000.

At Prague, May 6, 1757, with 64,000 Prussians, he defeated 65,000 Austrians.

At Kollin, Bohemia, June 18, 1757, 54,000 Austrians under Marshal Daun defeated Frederick with 32,000. Frederick had not hesitated to attack, though so far outnumbered.

At Rossbach, near the Saale, Frederick, with 22,000 men, gained a complete victory over the combined Austrians, French and Imperialists, November 5, 1757. The Allies lost 8,000, Frederick only 165 killed and 376 wounded. This, as has been said, is esteemed the great Prussian's most wonderful victory.

At Leuthen, December 2, 1757, Frederick with 34,000 men defeated 80,000 Austrians.

At Zorndorf in Brandenburg, August 25, 1758, 32,000 Prussians defeated 50,000 Russians under Count Femor. This was the most murderous battle of the war and Frederick, to his surprise, found that the Russians at close quarters, were fierce fighters. Men wounded to the death used their last moments in butchering each other. It is related that one Russian, mortally wounded, was found on the body of a fallen Prussian choking his foe and gnawing him with his teeth.

At Hochkirch, near Dresden, October 14, 1758, Frederick was surprised by a force of 120,000 Austrians, who fell upon his army of 51,000 and compelled him to retreat. He lost Marshal Keith, one of his best officers in this engagement and on the same day received the news of the death of Wilhelmina, his favorite sister.

At Kunersdorf, in Brandenburg, August 12, 1759, Frederick with 48,000 men was cut to pieces by an army of Austrians and Russians numbering 78,000. The Prussians lost 18,500 men and an immense number of guns.

At Liegnitz, in Silesia, August 15, 1760, Frederick's army of 30,000 men was surrounded by four armies of Russians and Austrians with a combined strength of 115,000. Frederick defeated one Austrian army and broke through the toils.

At Torgau, in Saxony, November 3, 1760, with a force of 44,000 men, Frederick defeated an Austrian army of 65,000.

At Burkesdorf, July 21, 1762, Frederick, aided by a Russian army (a new Russian emperor had reversed his predecessor's policy and now fought with the Prussians) defeated the Austrians under Marshal Daun.

END OF THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR

This closed the celebrated Seven Years' War. At the treaty of Hubertsburg, February 5, 1763, Maria Theresa of Austria bowed her head to fate. She acknowledged Frederick's seizure of Silesia, previously denounced as a theft, to have legalized by the war and restored to Prussia the county of Glatz which her troops occupied. Prussia in turn evacuated Saxony.

Though a victor in this war and the beneficiary of a treaty on its own terms, Prussia had paid dearly for its triumph. Its army was reduced to 60,000. The well disciplined troops of the first years of the war, including the famous Grenadiers of whom Frederick was especially proud, were all gone and nondescripts or even deserters filled their places. Discipline was relaxed, mutiny was always imminent and graft was rampant.

The Seven Years' War cost a million lives, including the losses of the Prussians and the Allies. It brought to Prussia not a foot of territory, except that by the arbitrament of arms it vindicated her title to Silesia which she had forcibly taken from Austria.

For the sake of this title Frederick began the war. The utmost that he gained was a reputation through all the ages for dare-devil bravery and recklessness. He shrank from no adverse odds and is quoted as having said once in reply to a general who was trying to dissuade him from engaging the enemy:

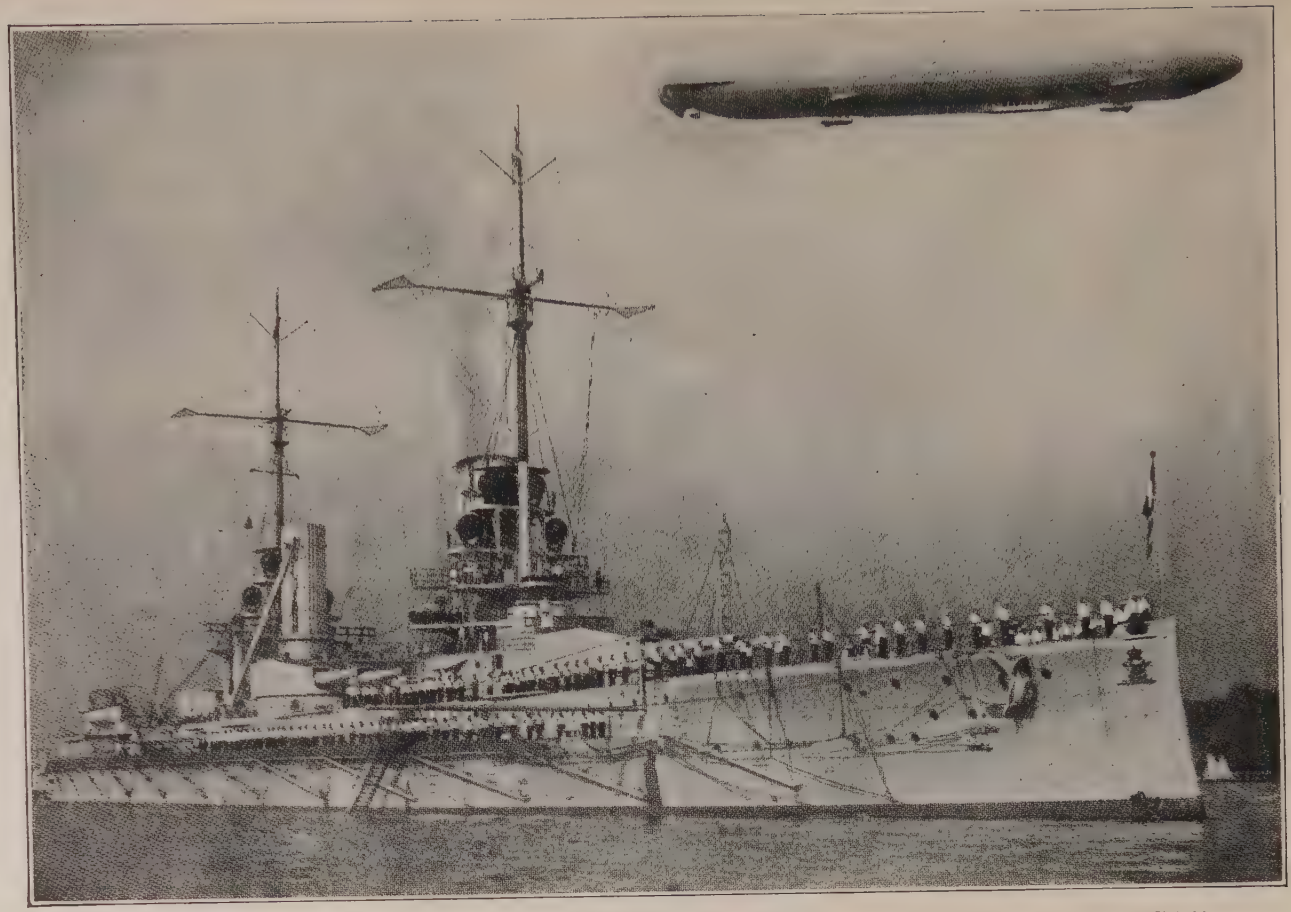
"I would attack them though they were all standing on the town steeples."

Most of his victories were won because of this spirit.

FREDERICK A FATALIST

Frederick the Great was a fatalist. He always expected to win, but it is related that he carried continually in his pocket an ounce of a deadly poison and swore that he would not survive a decisive defeat. After the rout at Kunersdorf he put this poison to his lips but decided at the last second to have one more trial.

DAMAGE FROM A SHELL, INSIDE A BATTLESHIP



GERMAN BATTLESHIP "FREDERICK DER GROSSE" AND ZEPPELIN "HANSA"

What are the points of resemblance between the great Frederick and the present Kaiser, his great-great-great-grandnephew? It is said that the Kaiser believed himself a reincarnation of his great ancestor. Physical resemblance there was none for Frederick was very short and slight—a much smaller man than the Kaiser. If one was brave even to recklessness it is said of the Kaiser that he was no less brave (though until the war of 1914 broke out he had never been under fire). But it is related of Frederick that he was scared within an inch of his life when he first faced the enemy on the field and leaped into the saddle of a fleeter horse that he might run away.

He spent forty-six years in the saddle and devoted the best of his years to stimulating the military spirit in the Prussians. But when he died, in 1786, at the age of seventy-four, it was in the midst of peace and plenty. There were 6,000,000 thalers in the treasury when he succeeded to the throne; his successor, Frederich Wilhelm II, found 72,000,000 thalers in the strong box, and began to reign over 6,000,000 contented and industrious Prussians who blessed the name of "Father Fritz," as the old king loved to be called.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

Louis XVI a Poor Ruler—His Personal Characteristics—Marie Antoinette, His Queen—Conditions At the Court of Louis—Huge Funds Wasted by the Courtiers—Power of the King Over His Subjects—Protests of the People Against Heavy Taxation—Opening of the French Revolution—Taking of the Bastile—Formation of the National Assembly—The King Is Defied—Chaotic Conditions In France—Effects of the New Constitution On Europe—France Embroiled In War—The King's Death Warrant—The New Republic—Its Early Troubles—The Rise of Napoleon—His Career—The Restoration—The Second Republic—The Second Empire—The Third Republic.

WHEN medieval history ended with the French Revolution, the latter event, which may well be said to have led up to the present war between Germany and Austria and the allies, began. It was in 1789 that the French Revolution, which marked the beginning of European democracy, came to a head. It was the cry of the people that the governed be allowed to do some of the governing and it was a direct blow to the old theory of the divine right of kings.

Louis XVI was the ruler of France at the time. He was at best a most commonplace type of man and many historians

have held that he would have been better fitted for the position of a baker than for that of the ruler of a nation. He was not a soldier, nor was he a statesman by any stretch of imagination. He was honest to be sure, but this did not make up for other deficiencies in his character. He was the pawn of wiser men largely for the reason that he did not understand men.

Marie Antoinette, Louis's queen, was a great beauty. She was an Austrian and she made no effort to conceal her distaste for everything French. The court of Louis has often been pointed to as an example of great immorality. Whether or not this was so is a question. But certain it is that Marie Antoinette often shocked the conventions and that the members of the court were guilty of similar breaches in a more marked sense. The atmosphere of the court was unhealthy. Marie Antoinette was no better at reading men than her husband and she was frequently imposed upon and duped into having incompetent or dishonest government officials appointed.

It was a lavish court that Louis held and money was wasted with a wanton hand. Naturally it was necessary to raise great funds for the maintenance of Louis and his courtiers. The only means to do this was to raise the taxes on the French people and to keep on raising them. As a result France was groaning under a heavy financial burden. Louis and his ministers resorted to method after method in order to wrest money from the people. It was an era of extravagance for the nobles; an era of abject poverty for the common people.

KING HAD POWER OF LIFE OR DEATH

Nor was poverty the only burden the French peasants had to bear. The nobles rode roughshod over them and their feelings and the king could mete out life or death to anyone without the person concerned having any redress. These very things marked the coming end of the feudal system in vogue in France. When a country is unable to get credit things are in a bad state indeed. This was the position France was in during the reign of Louis XVI.

The French Revolution began on July 14, 1789, when the people stormed the Bastile and released the prisoners held there. On January 21, 1793, Louis went to his death on the guillotine. The release of the prisoners in the Bastile followed a number of incidents that foretold the beginning of the end for Louis. Demands were made on Louis which he first refused to grant. Later the provinces showed something of a united front and he was compelled to bow to their wishes. The Three Estates finally managed to get together and in June, 1789, they adopted the title of National Assembly.

They took the oath to give a new constitution to France although the king ordered them to dissolve and the nobles backed him up. The king's order was ignored and Louis called out his soldiers to force the dissolution of the National Assembly. The answer to this was the formation of the National Guard and the storming of the Bastile by the people. Louis sought to compromise and for a time it appeared as if he would win the people over, but it was not long before the obstinate side of his nature showed itself.

France at the time was in a state of great turmoil. Violent acts were the order of the day and the tension was great

when the "Declaration of the Rights of Man" was announced. This Louis opposed and France was rocked to the core by the storm that ensued. At this juncture, when the fortunes of the king and queen were at a low ebb and it seemed that only a miracle could save them, Mirabeau appeared on the scene as an adviser to the king. Had his advice been followed he would, in all probability, have been the miracle worker. But Louis and Marie Antoinette had their minds poisoned against the leader of the assembly and when they lost him they lost the man who might well have saved their lives and possibly their fast tottering throne.

KING AND QUEEN ATTEMPT TO FLEE

Disregarding Mirabeau's advice that his only hope was to gather the army and war on the revolutionists, Louis and his queen attempted to flee. They were overtaken near the frontier and that practically sealed their fate. Calm heads saved them for the time being but the storm was only temporarily checked and when it did break it did so with such great force that it not only caused the deaths of the king and queen but of many nobles as well. France seemed to go blood-mad.

In 1791 when the new French constitution was decreed all Europe was shaken. Kings felt that if the revolutionary ideas of the French leaders were to spread their thrones were as good as gone. Even before this Marie Antoinette had been in touch with the courts at Berlin and Vienna, declaring that unless they threatened France with their armies the revolution was sure to spread and carry with it the seal of destruction of monarchs. Austria soon heeded the warning

and prepared to war on France. It did not take Prussia long to follow a similar policy, Louis having added his entreaties to those of Marie Antoinette.

On the face of things it looked as if the revolution would be crushed and that the combined armies of Austria and Prussia would make short work of the tricolored forces. But the plans of the king and queen acted as a boomerang. Their palace was stormed and they were put under arrest as the people prepared to make war on two foes.

Conditions were chaotic in France at the time and when the allied foe swept all before him the life of the revolutionary party seemed nearing its end. Beaten in the field, the French people wreaked horrible vengeance on the nobility. Outlying chateaus were stormed and their inmates put to death, nobles were dragged from prison to be put to death. The thirst for blood had to be allayed some way.

In September came the real birth of the republic. This seemed to carry good luck with it for soon the allies were seeking peace. With the allies backing down the king's fate was as good as sealed and Louis's death was voted on January 15, 1793. He went under the knife six days later and France was a republic in that royalty had come to an end. The people had taken the life of their king.

A COUNTER REVOLUTION STARTS

Soon the revolution had a counter revolution with which to deal. Those who had taken the life of Louis and many of his courtiers were worried for fear that they in turn would have to sacrifice their lives. England and Spain, too, took a hand in the trouble. Again things looked gloomy for the

republic but again they were saved. Carnot took the helm and he steered the ship safely over its troubled course. Followed then wholesale executions which well nigh amounted to massacres. Carnot, aided by Robespierre and Marat in directing things, decreed the death of hundreds. Paris was a human slaughter house. This was the period of the Reign of Terror and it was well named.

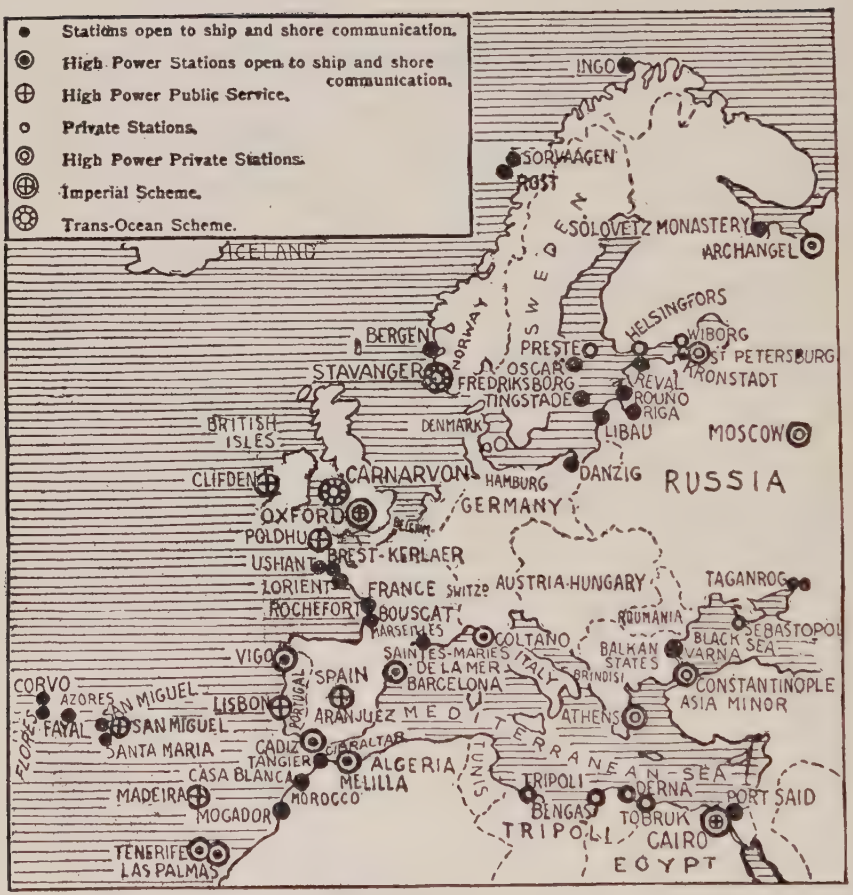
When the situation cleared up there was more trouble in the government. Paris had had enough of blood for the time being and a period that was marked by a more sane attitude was the result despite the bickerings among the lawmakers. But this period was short lived for there was an uprising in many parts of France over the rights of the people. Napoleon took a prominent part in quashing the trouble, which was done without much bloodshed and from then on he was a marked man. The new government was finally launched and France began a campaign to force her ideas on other countries. Armies were sent against Germany and Napoleon led the force intrusted with the rôle of driving the Austrians out of Italy. The Corsican made a whirlwind campaign of great brilliance, crossing the Alps on his march to victory. His other victories are familiar ones and as his popularity increased the directory of the new government tottered. Soon he overthrew the directory and the first republic had gone the way of Louis XVI.

NAPOLEON'S RULE

Followed then the rule of Napoleon. France was again under the heel of a ruler who soon made himself emperor and before long seemed to have all Europe under his thumb. But

his power finally waned and Waterloo saw the passing of his star. His exile followed and later came his death on the lonely little island of St. Helena, far from his beloved France. The House of Bourbon succeeded to the throne with the passing of Napoleon and the republican ideas of France were for the time being forgotten.

After Napoleon ousted the Directory, France was governed by the Consulate. Bonaparte, Cambacers and Lebrun were put in charge of the government in 1799. In 1802 Napoleon was made sole consul for ten years. A few months later he was made consul for life. In 1804 came the period of the Empire, with Napoleon decreed ruler of the French. The period of the Restoration lasted ten years, from 1814 to 1824, during which time the Bourbons were again in power. The House of Orleans ruled until 1848 when the Second Republic was formed. Louis Napoleon was elected president that same year. The Second Empire witnessed its rise in 1852, Napoleon III being elected to fill that office. He was deposed in 1870 and the Third Republic, which still is alive, came into being.



MAP OF WIRELESS STATIONS

CHAPTER XXV

THE WARS OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

History of His Campaigns Against Austria, Italy, Prussia, Russia and England—Cut Up Germany and Italy and Distributed Them Among His Favorite Generals—His Defeat in the "Battle of the Nations" and Final Defeat at Waterloo, Belgium, Scene of the Great European War of 1914.

THOUGH enrolled among the great warriors of history, Napoleon Bonaparte's genius was scarcely less for diplomacy, material development and state affairs. The Code Napoleon remains as a model of law to a great part of the civilized world.

He was born at Ajaccio in the Island of Corsica, August 15, 1769. His family on both sides belonged to the smaller nobility of Italy, and until he was twenty-seven years old he spelled his name in the Italian manner, Nabulione Buonoparte.

As a boy he was destined for the army, and at the age of ten he was sent to the military school in Brienne, France. Here he by no means distinguished himself and his poverty, pride, Corsican birth and imperfect knowledge of French combined to make him anything but a favorite with his fellow

students. He excelled in mathematics and his favorite author was Plutarch.

After five years at Brienne he went to the military school at Paris to complete his preparation for the army. One year later, at the age of sixteen, he received his commission as second lieutenant in the artillery regiment of La Fere.

BONAPARTE AND THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The French Revolution was at this time rapidly developing. Many of Bonaparte's aristocratic fellow officers threw in their lot with the royalists, but he chose the side of the people, though in a quiet and undemonstrative way.

He became captain of artillery by seniority in February 1, 1792, and was a witness to the insurrections of June 20th and August 10th. Bourrienne, his colleague and future biographer, relates that he stood by Napoleon's side when the mob broke into the Tuilleries and forced the King to don the red cap.

"It's all over with that poor man," Bourrienne records his companion observed, "but a few charges of grape-shot would set those wretches to fleeing."

In the beginning of 1795, after a furlough in Corsica, he was again in Paris, out of employment, despondent and with his ability still unrecognized. His first opportunity came when he was named as commander of 5,000 troops raised by the Convention of Paris to oppose the mobs in rebellion.

He took the command on short notice and had but a single night to make his preparations. Yet in the morning, when the National Guard, as the mob styled itself, marched along the quays of the Seine toward the Tuilleries they

found every point severely guarded and in an hour of actual fighting complete victory was secured for the Convention.

From this moment the young officer's fortunes began to improve. The Convention appointed him forthwith to the command of the Army of the Interior, and in March following he set out for Italy at the head of an army of 40,000 men.

Meanwhile he had met and married Josephine Beauharnois, the beautiful woman who was destined to play so important a part in his career. The wedding occurred on March 9, 1796, and a week later he started on the campaign.

DEFEATS AUSTRIANS AND SARDINIANS

His opponents were the combined forces of the Austrians and Sardinians and they were in force greatly superior to his own, both in numbers and equipment. Proceeding with great celerity he divided his enemies and then attacked them in detail. He was so quickly successful that the Sardinians were overtaken and beaten at Mondovi on March 22d and the Austrians were defeated at the Bridge of Lodi May 10th. Five days later Napoleon entered Milan and levied heavy contributions on the state, besides despoiling the museums of invaluable paintings and statuary, which he sent back to Paris. Naples, Modena, Parma and the Papal States hastened to sue for peace and the whole of Northern Italy was in the hands of the French.

The Italian campaign lasted until the following spring, Austria sending successive armies to retrieve the losses of the first and rallying various Italian states about her banners, but by April 7, 1797, Napoleon had overcome them all by generalship, audacity and celerity of movement, and an

armistice was concluded, Austria surrendering territory and indemnity to France and receiving Venetia in return.

When Napoleon returned to Paris in December, 1797, he had his first taste of popular applause. The enthusiasm his appearance aroused was overwhelming and the Directory at once placed him in command of an army which had been raised with the avowed object of invading England. Napoleon professed to favor that design, though he was fully aware that it was impracticable. He was probably aware that it was merely a feint to cover the invasion of Egypt as a preliminary step to the conquest of British India.

NAPOLEON'S EGYPTIAN CAMPAIGN

At any rate, he collected an army of 36,000 men and embarked at Toulon, May 10, 1798. A month later the French landed at Malta and took possession of that island. Ten days later they resumed their voyage and, landing at Alexandria July 1st, they took that city and began the march to Cairo. Here they encountered and repulsed a large body of Mamelukes at the desperate Battle of the Pyramids, and, having received the submission of many other tribes, Napoleon appeared to be in possession of all Egypt.

Fate, however, had a terrible reverse in store for him in the person of the English Admiral Nelson, who had long been in pursuit of his fleet, overtook it as it lay moored in the Bay of Abukir and utterly destroyed all but four of his vessels, which contrived to escape.

All means cut off of retreat to France, Napoleon made an expedition into Syria to meet the Turks. Various stories are extant of the cruelties he perpetrated during this cam-

paign, but it is known that he returned to Cairo after sixty days, having failed in the great objects of his expedition, lost 4,000 men and left a country in ruins behind him. In July, 1799, he attacked a force of 18,000 men whom the Sultan had landed at Abukir, the scene of Nelson's victory, and most annihilated them.

Getting bad news from Paris he embarked in a frigate August 22 and landed at Frejus, after having escaped the British cruisers in the Mediterranean. He found when he reached Paris that he had come none too soon. The government's credit was gone at home and abroad and the authority of its generals was greatly impaired. The distracted factions rallied about Napoleon, a new constitution was drawn up and Napoleon was made first consul, with power of appointing all the public officers, making him virtually the ruler of France.

From this time the policy of Napoleon developed more distinctly. Its objects were the establishment of order in France and the humiliation of the enemies of the nation abroad. Personal aggrandizement was an end, also, and the whole was backed up by sagacity, boldness and unquenchable energy. He recruited the national treasury and repealed the more violent laws passed during the Revolution, reopened the churches and suppressed the Vendean insurrection by decided though conciliatory measures.

DEFEATS AUSTRIANS AT MARENGO

Having offered terms of peace to England, Austria and Turkey and seen his offers rejected, he resolved to strike a

TORPEDO CAUGHT ON THE FLY

FRENCH SUBMARINE ATTACKING GERMAN BATTLESHIP

blow first at Austria. Accordingly, having concentrated an army of 36,000 men with unparalleled rapidity on the banks of Lake Geneva, he crossed the Alps and almost before the enemy were aware, was in Milan. After several skirmishes he met the Austrians at Marengo and won one of the most brilliant victories of his career, June 14, 1800.

On the 2d of August, 1802, Napoleon was proclaimed Consul for life by a decree of the Senate backed by a plebiscite of 3,000,000 votes. He devoted himself forthwith to the improvement of the internal affairs of the nation; established the Legion of Honor, inaugurated education in mathematics and physical science and assembled the first lawyers in the land to draw up the Code Napoleon.

These activities were disturbed by rumblings of discontent from neighboring countries. Europe was beginning to look askance at the new giant and Napoleon, feeling that he was on the eve of an important crisis in his career and the career of France decided that the time had come for him to assume imperial honors.

He summoned Pope Pius VII to Paris and was crowned Emperor May 18, 1804, in Notre Dame. Rather he crowned himself, for Napoleon snatched the crown from the Pontiff's hands and placed it on his own head. Then he performed a like office for Josephine. On May 26, 1805, he was crowned King of Italy in the cathedral at Milan, and appointed his stepson, Eugene Beauharnois, viceroy. He created a new nobility with high-sounding titles, surrounded himself with a brilliant court and set up all the ostentatious etiquette of royalty.

DEFEATS AUSTRIANS AND RUSSIANS AT AUSTERLITZ

England, Russia, Austria and Sweden united in a coalition against the new Emperor. Napoleon concentrated his forces at Mainz, marched across Bavaria at the head of 180,000 men and compelled the Austrian general, Mack, to surrender Ulm. Proceeding to Vienna he entered that city and made preparations to meet the combined armies of Austria and Russia, then concentrating on the plains of Olmuetz. On December 2 he met them at Austerlitz and after a desperate struggle completely routed them.

The Austrian Emperor instantly sued for peace, giving up all his Italian and Adriatic territories. The Russian retired behind his own frontiers. Joseph Bonaparte, the Emperor's brother, was made King of Naples and Louis, another brother, King of Holland. Italy and Germany were cut up into little kingdoms and dependencies and distributed among the French commander's favorite generals.

The years 1810 and 1811 were the period of Napoleon's greatest power. He had fought and won Friedland, a victory so decisive that Alexander of Russia was compelled to sue for an armistice; had extended his sway over the Spanish Peninsula and had issued the celebrated Berlin Decree. The notion of founding an imperial dynasty had come in the train of his repeated successes in the field and in December, 1809, he divorced Josephine. She had never borne him a child and, besides, Napoleon seems to have arrived at the conclusion that the only way to put an end to the machinations against him of the old legitimate dynasties was by intermarriage with one of them. Accordingly he married, March 11, 1810, the

Archduchess Maria Louisa of Austria and a year later a son was born to him, Napoleon Charles Francois Joseph, proclaimed in his cradle King of Rome.

His empire at this time extended from the frontiers of Denmark to those of Naples, with Paris, Rome and Amsterdam as capitals and a population of 42,000,000. In addition he had almost unlimited control in Spain, Switzerland, the Italian kingdoms, and the confederation of the Rhine.

NAPOLEON'S RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN

But now the tide began to turn. In May, 1812, Napoleon declared war against Russia and, against the advice of his wisest counsellors, determined to invade that country. He organized at Dresden an army of 675,000, including Prussian, Austrian, German, Polish and Swiss auxiliaries.

In June he crossed the Niemen, the Russians retiring before him and wasting the country as they went. On August 16 the Russians made a stand at Smolensk and when the French entered that city, August 18, it was a smoking ruin. The Russians gave battle at the Borodino, September 7, and in a long and obstinate struggle the French lost 30,000 men. When Napoleon reached Moscow he found that city in flames and, realizing that it was in vain to pursue the Russians further, reluctantly determined to retreat.

The line of retreat lay through the country that had just been devastated. The winter set in extraordinarily early and proved to be one of great severity. The French army, reduced to 120,000 when they turned back at Moscow and further reduced by cold, famine and disease, not to mention

the Cossacks who continually harassed their flank, did not number more than 25,000 fighting men by the time they had fought their way back to Smorgoni. The rest was scattered in the snow drifts along this calamitous march.

At Smorgoni, December 5, Napoleon quitted the army, leaving Murat in command. He reached Paris two weeks later and issued a fresh conscription, still determined on prosecuting the war. But the magic of his name had been destroyed by his reverses. Kings, clergy and people arose against the devastator of the continent. Another coalition was formed of England, Russia, Prussia, Sweden and Spain and in the spring of 1813 sent its forces toward the Elbe to meet Napoleon.

The latter still had an army of 350,000 men in Germany and for some months he was uniformly victorious. He defeated the allies at Luetzen and Bautzen and on June 1st reached Breslau where he concluded a six weeks' armistice. This gave the allies time to reorganize and, what was of at least equal consequence, to gain over Austria.

DEFEATED IN THE "BATTLE OF THE NATIONS"

The campaign reopened in mid-August and reached its climax at the Battle of Dresden, better known in history as the "Volkerschlacht" or "Battle of the Nations," fought October 16-19, 1813, in which the French were completely defeated and driven across the Rhine in a retreat almost as calamitous as that from Moscow.

On his arrival in Paris Napoleon was able, in spite of the prevalent discontent, to obtain from the Senate a decree

for a new levy of 300,000 men and again he took the field. This time the war was fought on French soil and never before was the genius and fertility of resource displayed by Napoleon greater. But in the end the number of the allies prevailed and March 31, 1814, the allies, under the leadership of Alexander of Russia and the Duke of Wellington, entered Paris after reducing its forts.

Napoleon abdicated April 6 in favor of his son. He was allowed to retire to the Island of Elba with the title of Emperor and $1,200,000 of revenue and Louis XVIII was restored to the French throne.

After ten months on the island, mostly spent in intriguing with the republicans of Paris and his own adherents, he made his escape from Elba and landed in France at Frejus, March 1, 1815, with an escort of 1,000 of his old guard. As soon as his arrival became known Marshal Ney at the head of a great part of his army joined him and he made a triumphal entry into Paris, March 20. Louis was driven from the throne without a shot being fired.

As soon as they had recovered from the shock of their surprise the allied armies started for the French frontier. Napoleon went forth to meet them with an army of 130,000 men.

They came together on the same field in Belgium where the first battles of the great Europeon war of 1914 were fought. The English and Prussians were commanded by Wellington and Blucher. June 16 Napoleon encountered Blucher at Ligny and defeated him, while Ney was able to keep the English in check at Quatre-Bras. The Prussians made an orderly retreat, pursued by the French under Grouchy.

THE 1815 BATTLE OF WATERLOO

Wellington, in order to keep his communication open with the Prussians, fell back on the plain of Waterloo and here, June 18, 1815, he was attacked by Napoleon. There was a stubborn fight all day and when, in the evening, Blucher came up, having outmaneuvered Grouchy, the French were crushed and put to disorderly flight.

Napoleon's power was gone forever. The allies marched without opposition to Paris and again took possession of the city. Once more Napoleon abdicated in favor of his son, and having been threatened by Fouche, who had assumed control of the French government and seeing no hope of safety in France, he made his way to Rochefort and surrendered to Capt. Maitland of the British man-of-war Bellerephon, claiming the hospitality and protection of the English nation.

Capt. Maitland was ordered to detain Napoleon as a prisoner and to transfer him to the Northumberland, in which ship he was to be conveyed to the Island of St. Helena and there confined for the rest of his life. These were the terms of a convention signed at Paris, August 20, 1815, between England, Russia, Austria and Prussia.

Napoleon's health began to fail in September, 1818. He developed cancer of the stomach and May 8, 1821, he was buried on the island. In 1840 his remains were disintered and taken to Paris, where they were received with splendid ceremonial and entombed under the dome of the Hotel des Invalides, their final resting place.

DEVASTATION
PHIL. PORTER

CHAPTER XXVI

THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR

Napoleon III Makes War on Prussia over the Selection of a King to the Spanish Throne—Gen. Von Moltke, in Bed, Tells Messenger Where to Find Plans for Mobilization and Goes to Sleep—Historic Battles of the Short War —Flight of the Emperor and the Empress Eugenie— The Beginning of the German Empire.

NAPOLEON III of France, finding at the beginning of 1870 that neither his people nor his army was entirely loyal, decided that they needed a war of conquest to put them in good humor with themselves and with him and determined to enter precipitately into a war with Germany.

This, he felt sure, was inevitable sooner or later and in his failing health he did not choose to leave it to his successor. Besides, he would give a frontier on the Rhine to France, at least to the borders of Belgium, and thus bring his reign to a glorious end.

Napoleon found a pretext in the condition of Spain which at that time was in need of a king. Several princes had been proposed and the most acceptable one would have been the Duke of Montpensier. But Napoleon dreaded the rivalry of the house of Orleans and gave Spain to under-

stand that Montpensier would not be acceptable to him. Spain then selected Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern, a relative of the Prussian royal house. Napoleon thereupon instructed the French minister at Berlin to take a haughty tone with the Prussian king and say that if Leopold was permitted to accept the Spanish crown it would be a cause of war between France and Prussia.

The King of Prussia retorted that he would not be intimidated and that Leopold might do as he chose. Napoleon, anxious for a casus belli, chose to object that the tone of this reply was offensive and, spurred by the Empress (Eugenie), a bitter enemy of Germany, declared war.

VON MOLTKE IN BED MOBILIZES ARMY BY MESSENGER

This was July 19, 1870. For months before, Prussia had been making extraordinary preparations for a conflict with France. It is said that when a messenger went to the house of Gen. von Moltke to announce that war was at last declared he found the general in bed. The general took the news with perfect calmness. Sitting up in bed, he said to the messenger:

"In the second drawer from the top of that bureau you will find the plans for mobilization. Large package wrapped in gray paper and tied with red twine. Yes; that's it. Good night."

Then the general lay down and went to sleep.

His plans were found to be perfect in every detail. For weeks Alsace-Lorraine, the provinces of France adjoining the German frontier (and the scene of much of the activity of both armies in the war of 1914) had been pervaded by

Prussians in the disguise of peddlers and vagrant mechanics. These were all recalled when the alarm was sounded and they brought back to Berlin data whose value was soon to be proved.

The Prussians invaded Alsace at once and marched steadily toward the Moselle, the French retreating as they came. The country was systematically requisitioned for supplies by the Prussian officers. Word was sent in advance to the maire or other official of each village how many men he would be expected to provide rations for and for how many days. Thus, for each man daily, 1 1-2 lb. bread, 1 lb. meat, 1-4 lb. coffee, 5 cigars or their equivalent in tobacco and a pint of wine or a quart of beer. If the villagers protested against these demands their houses were set afire, but after a few examples of this severity there were no more protests.

Erckmann-Chatrain, the novelists, have left a record gathered from the Alsatian peasants who were eye witnesses of the methods of the Prussians on march.

"The first thing the Prussian commander did on entering the cottage assigned for his headquarters," they say, "was to make three or four soldiers turn out every article of furniture. Then he spread out an enormous map of the surrounding country, took off his boots and lay down on his stomach. Then he called in all his captains or lieutenants. Each man pulled out a small map and the general called to them one by one and asked each in turn:

" 'Have you got the road from here to Metting?'

" 'Yes, General.'

" 'Name all the places between here and there.'

"Then the officer without hesitation told the names of

all the villages, farms, streams, bridges and woods, the bends in the roads, even the cowpaths. The general followed him in his large map with his finger.

" 'That's right,' he said to each. 'Take twenty men and go as far as St. Jean by such and such a road and reconnoitre. If you want any assistance send me word.' And so on, one by one, to all the others."

Such was the system and order of the Prussians. Contrasted with this was the confusion and lack of organization that prevailed in the French army from the moment that war was declared. The Emperor had been lightly assured that his army would be found in a state of perfect preparedness.

"Not so much as a button on a gaiter will be found wanting," his Minister of War assured him.

The people fully shared this confidence and cheered the troops as they left Paris for what they were sure would be a triumphant march "to Berlin."

FRENCH PREPARED ON PAPER ONLY

Very soon, however, it appeared that the preparation and perfect organization were all on paper. The old guns mounted on the frontier fortresses were worthless and the army was in such condition that barely 200,000 men could be sent to defend the frontier from Luxembourg to Switzerland, whereas Prussia was able by August 1 to pour half a million perfectly armed and drilled men across the Rhine.

The thin red line of the French, extending from Belgium to the Dauphine, was in a state of frightful disorder. Soldiers, recruits, horses, cannon, ammunition and wagons con-

taining supplies and all manner of munitions of war were hurried toward the Rhine without any regard for order. The roads from Strasburg to Belfort were blocked and nobody seemed to be in authority. Quartermasters roamed about in search of their depots, colonels were looking for their regiments and generals for their brigades and divisions.

In other parts of France, remote from the frontier, such as Brest and other seaports, the streets were crowded with half drunken recruits tipsily bawling patriotic songs. Now for the first time might be heard the strains of the "Marseillaise," long suppressed in France but permitted now for the purpose of exciting military ardor.

By July 27 all Paris was gathered in the streets to witness the departure for the front of the Imperial Guard, a select corps of 20,000 infantry and 3,000 cavalry organized by Napoleon III at the outset of the Crimean War. The corps was very popular and the war was popular, so their progress to the railway station was one of triumph. At every halt the Parisians pressed into the ranks with gifts of wine, cigars and money. "Hurrah for the army!" the crowds shouted. "On to Berlin!"

THE PRINCE IMPERIAL'S "BAPTISM OF FIRE"

Skirmishing had been going on between the Prussian and French outposts since July 21. The campaign began in earnest August 2. After luncheon on that day the Emperor accompanied by his son, the fourteen-year-old Prince Imperial, set out by rail from Metz and returned to Metz for dinner, having invaded German territory. They had alighted at Forbach and proceeded to make a reconnaissance near

SERVING EXTRA RATIONS AFTER A BATTLE

DEEP SEA DIVER GOING DOWN TO EXAMINE THE HULL

Saarbueck. Here the little prince saw his "baptism of fire," firing the first gun of the campaign. His father telegraphed an account of the event that night to the Empress in St. Cloud.

The day after the attack on Saarbueck compact masses of Germans were moving across the frontier into France and on the day following a division of the army of Marshal MacMahon, next to the Emperor the leader of the French army, was surprised at Wissembourg, cut to pieces and scattered over the country. Wissembourg, a small town in Alsace, was set on fire.

After that, one defeat followed another of the French arms. The French army was divided into seven corps, the German into twelve. Each German corps was numerically stronger than the French and better equipped and officered. The Germans began the war with nearly a million men, the French with little more than 200,000 on the frontier, though they had 500,000 men on their records.

Two days following the defeat as Wissembourg the battle of Woerth or Reichshofen was fought between a corps of the Prussian Crown Prince, father of Kaiser Wilhelm II, and the corps of MacMahon. The French artillery fought brilliantly but it was able only to cover the retreat of the corps and prevent it from becoming a rout.

August 9, the populace of Paris, which had been fed on false news of victories all along the line, awakened to the horror of the situation which confronted it when a telegram was received from Napoleon at the front: "Hasten preparations for a defense at Paris."

Already the war was virtually over, although it had scarcely begun. The battles of Gravelotte, Metz and Sedan

remained to be fought but each of these, though adding to the French reputation for bravery, was a fresh contribution of disaster. Sedan occurred on August 30. It was a veritable slaughter in the "sink of Gavonne."

NAPOLEON'S SURRENDER

Two days later an aide de camp of Napoleon III carried a note from his chief to the King of Prussia surrendering his sword. "Not having been able to die in the midst of my troops," wrote the Emperor, "it only remains for me to place my sword in the hands of your majesty."

Eighty thousand men surrendered at Sedan and were marched into Germany as prisoners. One hundred and seventy-five thousand French soldiers remained shut up in Metz, besides a few thousand others in Strasburg, Phalsbourg and Belfort. The road was open to Paris and thither the various German armies marched, leaving the Landwehr, which could not by law be ordered to serve outside of Germany, to hold Alsace. The Germans already considered that province a part of Germany, though it was not formally annexed until later.

AMERICAN DENTIST SAVES EMPRESS EUGENIE

The Emperor and Empress meanwhile had fled to England, she having been smuggled out of the Tuilleries and to Boulogne by the aid of Dr. Evans, an American dentist. She was taken aboard the yacht of an Englishman and found refuge at Chiselhurst, near London. The Emperor died soon afterward. The Prince Imperial joined the British

army when he grew up and perished miserably in South Africa by the assegais of the Zulus. The Empress was destined to many years of sorrow. Her home was still at Chiselhurst in 1914. She received the news of the invasion of Alsace-Lorraine by her countrymen at a temporary resort on the Riviera.

The siege of Paris which lasted until March 1, 1871, when the German army entered the city but at once withdrew, made the last chapter of a brief and calamitous war. It was attended by great suffering from cold and hunger which the Parisians endured with fortitude and was followed by the turbulent scenes of the Commune, written in fire and blood.

The Germans completed their triumph by assembling at Versailles and proclaiming the New Germany—United Germany—with the King of Prussia as Wilhelm I, the first Kaiser. The present Kaiser is his grandson. In addition they levied tribute on Paris of $40,000,000 and occupied two of the forts surrounding the city until this was paid, as it was in an incredibly short time. The last of the Germans retired to their own soil in September, 1872.

The recovery of Alsace and Lorraine, lost to France in this war, and the overthrow of the great German Empire built, in the opinion of France, on the ruins of their own empire, was the dream of the French people for the forty-four years that ensued between the Franco-Prussian war and the Great European war of 1914. This was the chief inspiration of their attack on the German frontier when the war of 1914 was declared. They entered Alsace as a man returning to his own land and were received by the Alsatians as long lost brothers.

CHAPTER XXVII

DECISIVE BATTLES AT SEA

The Building of Modern Navies Began in the United States With the Monitor and Merrimac—China and Japan in Next Battle of Ironclads at the Mouth of the Yalu—Naval Fights in the Spanish-American War and the Russo-Japanese War—The Decisive Naval Battles of the World.

THE history of modern naval warfare began in the civil war between the Northern and the Southern States.

Before the duel of the Monitor and Merrimac in 1862 battles at sea were fought entirely in wooden ships, great hulking, square-rigged "bull dogs" as they were called, carrying guns which would now be regarded as a joke and firing great, round solid shot.

It was with such equipment that Nelson, the British naval hero, won the victory of Trafalgar on the coast of Spain in 1805, and so headed off Napoleon's ambition to invade England. Nelson outmaneuvered his French and Spanish opponents, lured them out to sea and then charged them in two columns and battered their ships to pieces. He died within a few minutes after receiving word that he was a victor, leaving to history the celebrated legend:

"England expects every man to do his duty."

When the Merrimac appeared in Hampton Roads on the morning of March 8, 1862, the utter helplessness of the old-fashioned frigate in the face of the modern iron clad became at once fearfully apparent.

There were several wooden men of war in the harbor, the best, it was considered, in the navy of the United States and on the approach of the Merrimac they poured volleys of shot upon her iron roof. The effect of this rain of iron was described by one of the United States Navy officers as that "of peas from a pea shooter." They made no impression whatever.

Meanwhile the iron roofed Merrimac continued calmly in her work of destruction. Crossing the Roads, she moved up to the United States sloop-of-war Cumberland with thirty guns, crushed in her wooden hull as if it had been pasteboard and sank her.

Then, turning to the frigate Congress, fifty guns, the Merrimac drove her aground, disabled her, forced her to surrender and burned her. It must not be supposed that the Congress was idle all this time. For an hour she poured broadside after broadside upon the Merrimac but her solid shot rebounded from the iron sides like baseballs.

Having destroyed two of the best ships in the Federal Navy the Merrimac withdrew from the battle and rested for the night. The surprise of the next day was furnished by the appearance of the Monitor in the Roads. She had had an awful journey down the Atlantic coast and presented an aspect as strange and novel as had the Merrimac the day before.

FIRST IRONCLADS DESCRIBED

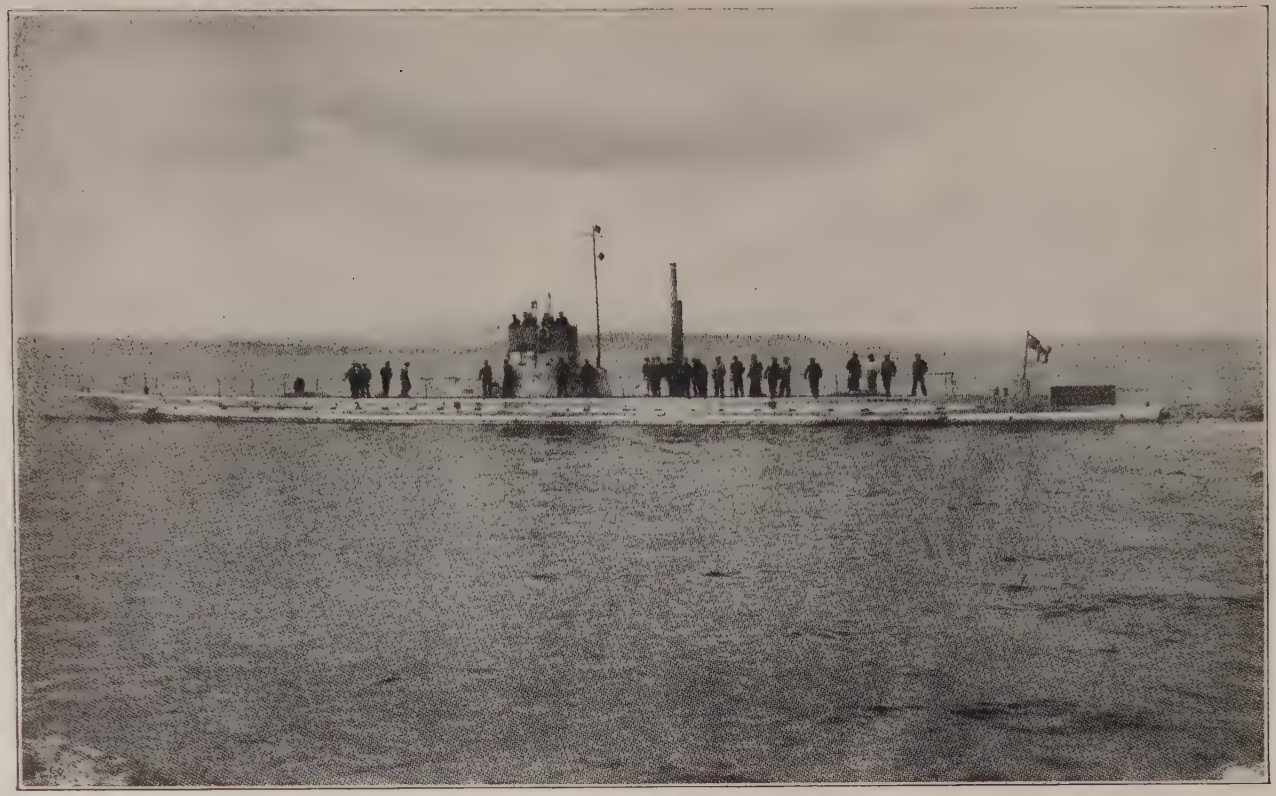
The Merrimac or Virginia, as the Confederates called her, was originally a wooden frigate in the United States Navy. She was burned to the water's edge by the Federals when they destroyed the Norfolk Navy Yard. The Confederates raised her hulk, rusty engines and all built a wooden shed on her deck, but an overcoat of cast iron an inch thick on her, fastened at her prow a huge piece of iron with which to ram and fitted her with guns. Formidable as she proved in battle with the old line wooden frigates, she was the clumsiest, most ungainly craft imaginable. Under the most favorable circumstances she was not capable of more than four knots an hour and her rusty engines were almost continually out of order.

The Monitor was compared when she first presented herself to "a cheese box on a raft." She was built new by the Federal government from designs by John Ericson, a naturalized Swede. She lay low in the water and had a long overhang at bow and stern like a ferryboat. The "cheese box" was a turret in which were mounted her guns. Like the Merrimac, she was designed to ram her opponent and her own hull and engines were mostly under water and out of the enemy's fire.

These two strange craft came together in battle in the Hampton Roads, March 9, 1862, and what a battle it was! In after years every detail of it was to be studied and analyzed for data from which the modern fleets of steel dreadnaughts were to be evolved.

It was armor against armor. Forward and backward, on straight lines and then on curves the unwieldly craft

TORPEDO BOATS ATTACKING A BATTLESHIP



GERMAN SUBMARINE V. 11

were maneuvered, each seeking the other's weak point. Solid shot struck the sloping sides of the Merrimac, raking her from stem to stern. Solid shot made dents in the sides of the Monitor's turret and bounded harmless into the water. Thus they pounded each other for hours and then shaken and damaged, they parted with mutual respect.

The North drew a long breath. The much derided Monitor was at least a match for the Merrimac. But the lesson of the day at Hampton Roads was for all the future, for all the world built "ironclads." The day of the old wooden navies was past.

Thirty-two years elapsed before the next chapter in naval warfare was written. In September, 1894, the fleets of China and Japan came together at the mouth of the Yalu River and, at heavy cost to China, the next important lesson was given in naval warfare.

THE BATTLE OF THE YALU

The Japanese squadron, comprising eleven war ships and the packet, Saikio-Maru passed Haiyun Tao, sighted the mouth of the Yalu in the forenoon of September 17. There they found fourteen Chinese warships and six torpedo boats. The Chinese fleet steamed out of the mouth of the river in battle formation and opened fire at about two and a half miles. The Japanese waited until the enemy had come about a mile closer and then brought their guns into play. The Japanese maintained their line of battle but the Chinese after a short time broke their formation.

It was hot work at times. The Japanese fire took effect first. First one, then another, then another of Chinese ships

were sunk, all stern first. On board the packet Saikio-Maru was Admiral Kabayama, head of the Japanese naval command bureau. His presence was purely accidental for he was making a tour of inspection and had not foreseen the meeting of the two fleets. The Admiral was frequently in imminent danger. The packet's steering gear was disabled by a Japanese shell. She was pursued by the Chinese and forced to pass between two of their ships within a distance of 100 yards. The commanders of these ships, thinking it was the intention of the Saikio-Maru to ram them, sheered off and permitted the packet to escape. The Chinese discharged two fish torpedoes after her but they were aimed too low and passed under her.

Several of the Japanese ships had narrow escapes from destruction and a number were damaged. But, besides sinking three they set fire to three others of the Chinese fleet and at sundown had the others in full retreat. The Japanese followed them but the night was very dark and the Chinese escaped to a safe shelter.

From this engagement naval commanders learned an altogether new lesson in fighting, not only with steel clad ships but at long range.

Four years later, Captain Mahan, the great naval strategist of the United States Navy, wrote:

"This, then, is the forecast of the battle of tomorrow. Two great lines of monster ships steaming side by side, but far apart, whilst the uproar of the cannonade, the wail of shells, fills the air. As the minutes pass, funnels and superstructures fly in splinters, the draught sinks, the speed decreases, ships drop to the rear. The moment for close action

has come and the victor steams in on the vanquished. The ram and the torpedo, amid an inferno of sinking ships and exploding shells, claim their victims. The torpedo boats of the weaker side in vain essay to cover the beaten battle ships. Beneath a pall of smoke, upon a sea of blood the mastery of the waters is decided for a generation. Such an encounter will not lack sensation. To live through it will be a life's experience; to fail in it, a glorious end."

The interval of ninety years between 1815 and 1904 was marked by no great naval war. There were blockades and there was fighting at sea but there were no encounters between large and well appointed navies. In the latter year began the war between Russia and Japan in which the Japanese for the first time found themselves arrayed on the sea against a western power. They proved their superiority by virtually destroying the Russian fleet and took a high place among the naval powers of the world.

The United States, in somewhat similar manner, surprised the world in the war with Spain in 1898, by proving its navy to be in a state of complete preparedness. Rear Admiral Dewey, a veteran of the civil war, destroyed the Eastern fleet of the Spaniards in the harbor of Manila, after which the Oregon, racing across the Pacific and round the Horn, joined the Atlantic squadron at Santiago to destroy about all that remained of the Spanish fleet in an engagement of unexampled celerity and thoroughness off Santiago, Cuba.

Despite these and a number of other minor sea fights the Six Powers of Europe entered upon the war of 1914 with little knowledge of the actual efficiency of their own or their opponents' navies.

THE NAVIES IN THE WAR OF 1914

On paper, England was not only the traditional "ruler of the sea;" for many years she had undertaken to keep her navy on a par with the combined navies of any two of the continental powers. This traditional policy, she asserted, was demanded by her insular position, by her far flung merchant fleets and by the world-wide extent of her colonies. Her food supply was almost all at sea; it could be protected only at sea.

This mastery of the seas was in a measure contested by Germany. From the beginning of his reign, Kaiser Wilhelm II devoted no small part of his tremendous energies to the development of the German merchant marine and the German navy to protect it.

France was passed in the race by Germany and fell to third place during this period of the Kaiser's activity, with Italy a bad fourth.

Austria was considered to have a small navy but "excellent in quality." The Russians had not yet had time to rebuild the ravages of the Japanese. The navies of the other powers involved in the war were negligible.

DECISIVE SEA BATTLES OF HISTORY

A glance over the pages of history shows that about a dozen battles at sea have been fought which may be said to have been "decisive." In chronological order they follow:

Salamis, 480 B. C.—Greeks defeated the Persians and saved their own country from invasion and conquest.

Actium, 31 B. C.—Octavius became master of the world by defeating Anthony and Cleopatra in Rome's great civil war.

Lepanto, 1571—First naval battle with guns. Don Juan of Austria, commanding the united forces of Spain, Venice and the Papal States, defeated the Turks and checked the Moslem invasion of Christendom.

Defeat of the Spanish Armada, 1588—English Admiral Howard, assisted by Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Hawkins, destroyed the Spanish fleet in the English channel and saved England from invasion. This was the beginning of England's mastery of the seas.

Battle of the Nile, 1789—English Admiral Nelson defeated the French fleet, blockaded Napoleon's army in Egypt and gained control of the Mediterranean sea for England.

Trafalgar, 1805—Nelson again defeated the French under Admiral Villeneuve, destroyed Napoleon's sea power and prevented his threatened invasion of England.

Lake Erie, 1813—Commodore Perry defeated the British squadron under Captain Barclay and saved the northwestern United States from invasion.

Monitor and Merrimac, 1862—First fight of ironclads. Monitor's victory revolutionized naval warfare and established control of the sea for the North.

Mobile Bay, 1864—Admiral Farragut, commanding the Union fleet, struck one of the death blows to the Confederacy.

Yalu, 1894—Japan destroyed the Chinese fleet and laid the foundation for her present power at sea.

Manila Bay, 1898—Admiral Dewey destroyed the Spanish fleet and won the Philippine Islands for the United States.

Santiago, 1898—Admiral Sampson, with the loss of only one man, destroyed Admiral Cervera's fleet and brought the American-Spanish war to an end.

Port Arthur, 1904—Admiral Togo's first decisive victory over the Russian fleet trying to escape from Port Arthur.

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE WORLD'S DECISIVE BATTLES

(Marathon to Orleans)

The Battle of Marathon—The Peloponnesian War—The Battle of Arbela—The Battle of the Metaurus—Defeat of Varus, the Roman, by Arminius—The Battle of Chalons—The Battle of Tours—The Battle of Hastings—Joan of Arc at Orleans.

THE BATTLE OF MARATHON

THE great Eastern Monarchy founded by Cyrus, King of Persia, and extended by Cambyses, his son, was consolidated by Darius, who became king of Persia in 521 B. C. Among the conquests of Cyrus was the kingdom of Lydia, in Asia Minor. Now, just before the Persian conquest of Lydia, the king of that country, Croesus, had succeeded in reducing under his own dominion the Greek cities on the coast of Asia Minor; so that now they, too, became subjects to Persia.

The Ionian cities did not submit without a struggle, and after a certain time there ensued a general revolt of these cities, in 500 B. C. The Athenians, to help their kinsfolk in Ionia, sent twenty ships with a small force. A landing was

made on the coast of Asia Minor, and Sardis, the capital of Lydia, was captured and accidentally burned, 499 B. C.

This sally had only the effect of drawing down the wrath of Darius on the Ionian cities, and the revolt was soon quelled (494 B. C.). The Persian monarch then resolved to chastise the Athenians. When the news of the burning of Sardis was brought to Darius, he called for his bow, and shot an arrow toward the sky, with a prayer to Auramazda for help to revenge himself on the Athenians. Then he bade one of his servants repeat to him thrice daily, as he sat down to dinner, the words, "Master, remember the Athenians."

In execution of his purpose, Darius instructed his son-in-law, Mardonius, to march an army against the Athenians. The force advanced through Thrace into Macedonia, which was speedily subjugated, but it was able to go no farther; and a fleet which had been sent to cooperate was shattered by a great storm off the peninsula of Mount Athos, so that Mardonius returned to Asia Minor in disgrace, 492 B. C.

This failure only added fury to the resolution of Darius. While pushing forward his preparations for the invasion of Greece, he sent heralds to the chief Grecian cities to demand the tribute of earth and water as signs of his being their rightful lord. The island states generally made their submission, as did also many of the continental states, and it seemed that the young civilization of the West was to be overwhelmed by Eastern despotism. But the genius of Hellas found noble champions in two of the states; for Athens and Sparta indignantly rejected the demand, and their conjunction drew after them most of the lesser states in a defensive league.

It was time for Greece to be united, for in the spring of 490 B. C. the preparations of Darius were complete. A vast

force, under a commander named Datis, sailed in six hundred triremes (war vessels having three banks of oars, commanded by a trierarch, and often manned by over 200 men) from Samos across the Aegean, reducing the Cyclades islands on the way, and after capturing Eretria in the island of Euboea, made a landing in the bay of Marathon, on the east coast of Attica. The Persians now prepared to advance on Athens.

But this was not to be without a struggle, and the plain of Marathon was the scene of the conflict, one of the most important and momentous in history. Here the invaders were met by a small army of Athenian soldiers under Miltiades and completely routed (490 B. C.). There between the mountains and the sea, the little Athenian force of 10,000 men, unaided save by 600 men from Plataea, but led by the genius of Miltiades and inspired by high patriotic daring, met a Persian army of ten times its number and defeated it (September, 490 B. C.).

The Persians, then famed as the greatest soldiers in the world, previous to that battle had scarcely known a check in their conquests. Had they succeeded at Marathon, European civilization would probably have assumed a new phase; but, through the genius of Miltiades and the patriotic daring of the Athenians, the invaders were driven back, and Greece was saved.

THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR

The Peloponnesian War was a conflict between Athens and her allies on the one hand, and Sparta and her allies on the other. It began in 431 B. C., lasted twenty-seven years,

and ended in weakening Greece generally, and in completely destroying the Athenian ascendency.

This was occasioned by the jealousy which the great power of Athens stirred up among many other of the Greek cities; but it had in reality a deeper cause, namely, the outbreak of an "irrepressible conflict" between Ionians and Dorians, between democracy and oligarchy—Athens being the chief of the Ionian and democratic states, and Sparta the chief of the Dorian and aristocratic states.

The immediate occasion of the war was a conflict between Corinth and one of her colonies, Corcyra. Siding with the latter, Athens excited the wrath of the Dorian Confederacy, and a Spartan army invaded Attica, 431 B. C. During the first ten years of the war, down to 421, the two parties contended with nearly equal success, the Athenians being much the stronger by sea, and the Spartans and their allies by land. A peace was then concluded, called the "Peace of Nicias" (421 B. C.), which was to last for fifty years; but as many of the confederates were dissatisfied with its terms, it was not likely to be of such long duration, and indeed hostilities were renewed almost immediately.

The renewal of the war was precipitated through the political influence of Alcibiades, a handsome, dissolute young disciple of Socrates. He possessed brilliant talent, but he was ambitious, and he was eager to renew the war, as affording him an opportunity of personal distinction.

Alcibiades brought forward a scheme of conquering Syracuse, a city in Sicily. It was a bold undertaking, and its successful execution would have given a great preponderance to Athens over Sparta. The Athenians adopted the plan, and in 415 B. C. sent a fleet and force against the Syracusans.

Sparta sent aid to the latter, and thus the Peloponnesian War was renewed. In the midst of the enterprise Alcibiades was recalled to Athens on a charge of impiety, but he managed to escape and went over to Sparta. The Syracusan expedition proved a total failure (413 B. C.), and greatly damaged the power of Athens.

During the last eight years the Peloponnesian War was carried on mainly at sea, off the coast of Asia. Sparta allied herself with Persia, and it was Persian gold that afforded Sparta the means to continue the contest against Athens. Athens, however, made a bold front, and under the lead of Alcibiades (who had meanwhile been recalled to the command) kept up the contest with wonderful vigor. But a fatal blow fell when the Spartan admiral, Lysander, surprised the beached galleys of the Athenians at Aegos Potamos in the Hellespont, in 405 B. C. The siege and surrender of Athens in the following year brought the great Peloponnesian contest to an end.

The result of the Peloponnesian War left Sparta the greatest power of Greece. Athens sank into the background as a second-rate state. But, while she lost her political supremacy, she became more and more the leader in literature, art and philosophy.

BATTLE OF ARBELA

A long struggle following the great Peloponnesian War involved nearly all the Hellenic states and resulted in the general exhaustion of Greece. What strength remained was expended in mere intestine broils, and soon after this Greece fell an easy prey to Philip of Macedon, son of Amyntas II. This was in 359 B. C.

AN ATTACK FROM AMBUSH

A BATTLE AT CLOSE RANGE

Philip developed a grand scheme of conquest, and for twenty years following 358 B. C. he continued a mixed policy of war and intrigue, which at length made him master of Greece. In the midst of his preparations for still further conquest Philip was assassinated by one of his own subjects (336 B. C.), at the age of forty-six, after a reign of twenty-three years.

Philip was succeeded by his son Alexander, known as Alexander the Great. At the age of twenty he became heir to his father's power, and of far more than his father's military genius. He was immediately acknowledged generalissimo of Greece against the Persians, as his father had been. In the year 334 B. C. he crossed the Hellespont with a small army of 35,000 men, and advanced to the Granicus, in Asia Minor. Here a Persian army somewhat larger than his own was met and defeated, 334 B. C. He then passed victoriously through the Persian provinces of Asia Minor, and entered Syria. At Issus, near the borders of Cilicia and Syria, a vast Persian army under Darius Codomannus was met. The nature of the ground was such that the Persian superiority in numbers did not tell; Alexander here won a signal victory (333 B. C.), and Darius fled, leaving his mother and his wife captives.

Alexander did not immediately follow up the Persians, but proceeded from Issus against Tyre, Gaza and Egypt, at this time under the dominion of Persia. Twenty months sufficed for the reduction of these places. The foundation of the great seaport Alexandria—an act of far-sighted policy on the part of Alexander—was a result of his sojourn in Egypt.

Having possessed himself of all the maritime provinces

of Persia, Alexander, in 331 B. C., proceeded to seek his enemy in the heart of his empire. The final conflict was known as the battle of Arbela (in Assyria); but though the action bears the name of Arbela, it was in reality fought at Gaugamela, a village twenty miles distant. Here Darius had chosen his ground and arrayed the full force of his empire. But the Asiatic soldier was inferior to the European, and the invading force was led by a consummate military genius. The result was the complete overthrow of a Persian force of a million men by less than fifty thousand Greeks (331 B. C.). So decisive was the victory that the three capitals of the empire, Babylon, Susa and Persepolis, surrendered almost without resistance. The Persian monarch became a fugitive, and was ere long assassinated.

THE BATTLE OF THE METAURUS

Following the triumph over Carthage by the Romans, the citizens of that city felt that they had been deeply wronged, and long studied how the injury done them might be revenged. Under the leadership of Hamilcar they directed their attention to Spain, where they already had a strong foothold, as a fit "base of operations" against the Romans. Hamilcar's great object in subjugating Spain was to obtain the means of attacking the hated rival of his country. His implacable animosity against Rome is shown by the well-known tale, that when he crossed over to Spain, in 235 B. C., taking with him his son Hannibal, then only nine years old, he made him swear at the altar eternal hostility to Rome. Hamilcar fell in battle, and was succeeded by his son-in-law, Hasdrubal, and when the latter was assassinated the command of the army devolved upon Hannibal.

When, at the age of twenty-six, Hannibal was appointed to the command of the Carthaginian army in Spain, he carried the Carthaginian line up to the Ebro and besieged Saguntum, an ally of Rome. The city fell, and Rome immediately declared hostilities. The result was the second Punic War, which began in the year 218 B. C. Before the Roman army was ready to take the field, Hannibal, who was one of the greatest military geniuses that ever lived, had crossed the Pyrenees on his way to Italy. He then proceeded to perform one of the most famous exploits on record. With his army he climbed over the Alps (218 B. C.), losing more than 30,000 men, burst into the plain of Italy and defeated the Romans in four battles, the greatest of which was Cannae, fought in 216 B. C.

In Italy the career of Hannibal was most extraordinary. For fifteen years (217-202 B. C.) he maitnained himself in the peninsula, moving hither and thither, keeping seven or eight Roman generals, among them the wary Fabius and the bold Marcellus, continually employed, scattering the Romans like chaff wherever he appeared, exhausting the finances of the state, and detaching the Italian nationalities from their allegiance. The cautious Fabius, unwilling to risk another engagement with Hannibal's army, now flushed with victory, adopted the tactics of harassing the invaders as much as possible, hovering around them, like "a cloud on the mountains," thus wearing out their resources by delay. The Romans were thus enabled to recover somewhat from their disasters; but the next year (216 B. C.), Hannibal, having advanced into southern Italy, was opposed by a large army under the consuls Aemilius and Varro; and at Cannae a terrific battle took place, which for the fourth time resulted

in a complete victory for the Carthaginians (216 B. C.). It is said that more than fifty thousand Romans fell on the field, and that Hannibal sent to Carthage over a bushel of gold rings, taken from the fingers of the senators and knights who were found among the slain.

It is probable that Hannibal might have maintained himself in Italy for an indefinite time, and finally have shattered the commonwealth in pieces had it not been that the Romans assumed the offensive against Carthage. A vigorous young soldier, Publius Scipio, was sent into Spain, which he reduced to the condition of a Roman province, thus closing the main avenue by which the Carthaginians could send reinforcements to Hannibal (216-205 B. C.). Hannibal, despairing of succor from Carthage, now eagerly awaited the arrival of a force under his brother Hasdrubal from Spain, which had been expected for some time. Hasdrubal managed to march from Spain across the Alps into Italy (207 B. C.), and was proceeding on his route to join Hannibal in Umbria when he was intercepted by a Roman army, at the Metaurus River, and was defeated and slain. Hannibal received notice of this disaster by the sight of his brother's gory head, which the consuls caused to be thrown into his camp. At the sight of this dreadful omen Hannibal exclaimed, "I foresee the doom of Carthage!"

In spite of the cutting of his communications, Hannibal could readily have maintained himself in Italy; but now Scipio, landing in Africa in 204 B. C., defeated the Numidians in a great battle, and vanquished the Carthaginians with immense slaughter at Utica. Scipio marched almost to the gates of Carthage, when the Carthaginian senate, driven to despair, recalled Hannibal to the defense of his own country.

Landing in Africa, Hannibal drew up his forces on the plain of Zama, a town in Numidia. Seeing that his army was far inferior to that of the Romans, he obtained an interview with Scipio, and proposed a treaty of peace; but Scipio, true to Roman policy, declined the proposal. The battle followed, and Hannibal was defeated with great loss (202 B. C.). The Carthaginians in consequence were obliged to agree to peace on very severe terms. Although the Carthaginians were not utterly exhausted, yet, by the prudent counsel of Hannibal, who saw that it would be useless to protract the struggle, they consented to accept the terms of peace dictated by Scipio and approved by the Roman Senate.

VICTORY OF ARMINIUS OVER THE ROMAN LEGIONS UNDER VARUS, A. D. 9.

The reign of Augustus virtually though not formally began with the victory at Actium. It lasted forty-five years from that event (to 14 A. D.), for Augustus lived to be seventy-seven years of age. Although he ruled with absolute power, he was careful to retain the forms of the republican government, and to avoid every offensive title, such as king or dictator; but he caused all the important offices to be conferred upon himself. Thus, as Imperator (commander-in-chief), he had the command of the armies, and as president of the Senate and consul, he administered the civil government. The Senate still held its sessions, but its decrees had no real weight. The long civil wars had made the Romans greatly desire tranquillity, and as Augustus ruled with equity and moderation, they acquiesced in his authority. He kept large armies stationed at various parts of the em-

pire to repress all opposition, and he instituted the Praetorian Guards to protect his person. He also appointed a special council of state with whom he advised in regard to his measures.

Under his direction, campaigns were carried on against the tribes in northern Spain and among the eastern Alps—the Rhaetians and Vindelicians, as well as in the territories bordering on the Rhine and Danube. The provinces of Rhaetia, Noricum, Pannonia and Moesia were annexed to the empire during his reign; but his forces met with a severe defeat in the attempt to conquer the Germans living to the east of the Rhine. Led by the brave and patriotic Arminius, or Hermann, some of the tribes that had submitted to the Romans revolted, and the proconsul Varus was surprised and his army cut to pieces.

Varus, after being severely wounded in a charge of the Germans against his part of the column, committed suicide to avoid falling into the hands of the enemy. Mercy to a fallen foe had never been a Roman virtue; and the infuriated Germans, giving like for like, slaughtered their oppressors with deliberate ferocity. Those prisoners who were not hewn to pieces on the spot were only preserved to perish by a more cruel death in cold blood.

No victory was ever more decisive, nor the liberation of an oppressed people more instantaneous and complete. Roman garrisons in all parts of Germany were assailed and cut off, and shortly after Varus had fallen the German soil was freed from the foot of an invader.

BATTLE OF CHALONS, A. D. 451

The great Western empire was fast dissolving. In the early part of the fifth century three fragments broke off from the decaying trunk. The province of Britain was evacuated by the Romans and was soon overrun by the German tribes called Angles and Saxons. The various Teutonic tribes were pressing into Gaul, and from Gaul into Spain. Spain was conquered by Vandals, Sueves and other German races, while Gaul was filled with Franks and Burgundians and Goths, all of whom belonged to the great Teutonic family. The province of Africa, too, was lost; for a band of Vandals under Genseric passed over from Spain to Carthage, which was conquered in A. D. 439.

Meanwhile Attila the Hun had gone forth from his log house on the plain of Hungary, at the head of half a million savages, to conquer the world. Crossing the Rhine, he pierced to the center of Gaul; but at Chalons he was defeated by the united power of the Romans, Goths and Franks, A. D. 451. In this memorable battle Aryan civilization and Tartar despotism met in a life-and-death struggle, and the nobler triumphed. Being defeated in Gaul, Attila climbed the Alps and overran Italy, pillaging and destroying through all the northern provinces; but his attacks were never fraught with such peril to the civilized world as had menaced it before his defeat at Chalons. It is a strange fact that it was through the persuasion of the Pope, Leo I, that Attila was induced to return to Hungary. Here, in A. D. 453, he broke a blood vessel. So died one whose savage boast it was that grass never grew on a spot where his horse had trodden. His great empire immediately fell to pieces.

BATTLE OF TOURS, A. D. 732

A Visigothic kingdom had been established in Spain; but Roderick, the "last of the Goths," was defeated on the field of Xeres, and the Saracens established themselves firmly in Spain. In the course of a few years they had possession of the whole peninsula, with the exception of the mountainous districts in the north, where the little Christian kingdom of the Asturias maintained itself.

The ambition of the Saracens now overleaped the Pyrenees. They obtained a lodgment in southern Gaul, and after a time an able Saracenic commander, Abdelrahman, led a powerful Mohammedan army northward to subdue the land of the Franks. As far as the Loire everything fell before him, and it seemed that all Europe would come under Moslem sway.

It was in the hour of need that Charles Martel appeared as a champion for Christendom. Gathering a powerful army, he met the Saracens between Tours and Poitiers. A desperate battle, which lasted for seven days, ensued; but on the seventh day the Saracens were defeated with great slaughter, A. D. 732. This victory arrested forever the progress of the Mohammedan arms in Europe, and procured for Charles the expressive surname of "the Hammer" (Martel), by which he is known in history.

BATTLE OF HASTINGS, A. D. 1066

In the Saxon period of the history of England, which includes that of the Heptarchy, about three and a half centuries preceding the consolidation of the Saxon kingdoms by

Egbert, the Danes commenced their invasions. These people were Norsemen who had come from Norway to Denmark, and occupied the lands left uninhabited by the emigration of the Angles and Jutes to Britain. The Danes for a long time continued to harass the kingdom of England, in the reigns of both Egbert and his successors, the Saxon kings of England. The most eminent of these Saxon kings was Alfred the Great, who, though at one time entirely overwhelmed by the Danes, afterward defeated his enemies and regained his throne.

During the next century the Danes continued their incursions, until the English monarch was compelled to surrender one-half of his dominions to the Danish conqueror Canute, and soon afterward the latter obtained full possession of the throne (A. D. 1017), which he and his two successors held, until the Saxon line was again restored in the person of Edward, called the Confessor. Edward dying without heirs, the crown was conferred by the clergy and nobles upon Harold, son of Earl Godwin, the most powerful nobleman of the time, whose daughter Edward had married. Harold was also, through his grandmother, a descendant of Sweyn, the Danish king. His right to the throne was, however, disputed by his brother Tostig, who, having entered into an alliance with the King of Norway, was enabled to raise a large army; but he was defeated by the English forces under Harold, after a severe battle fought near the Derwent River, in the northern part of England (September 25, 1066).

Three days after this battle, a more powerful competitor for the throne landed on the southeastern shore of England, with a large and finely equipped army. This was William,

Duke of Normandy, to whom Edward had bequeathed the throne, and whose claim was sanctioned by the Pope; while Harold, who, it was said, had sacredly promised not to dispute William's claim, was viewed by many as guilty of usurpation and perjury. Harold, notwithstanding his recent conflict with the Norwegians, marched with all the forces he could collect to oppose the Normans. The battle, which was long and bloody, was fought near Hastings, on the site of the town now called Battle, in the southeastern part of England, and resulted in the entire defeat of the Saxons, Harold himself being slain (October 14, 1066) by being struck with an arrow through the left eye. The old Anglo-Saxon heroism, worthy of a better fate, set in that dark eclipse; the battle-ax no longer availed against the Norman spear. There was neither rout nor flight, so great was the despairing energy with which the English fought. King Harold's army was exterminated but not vanquished, and England lay paralyzed at the foot of the conqueror.

JOAN OF ARC'S VICTORY OVER THE ENGLISH AT ORLEANS, A. D. 1429

Charles the Seventh, surnamed the Victorious, was crowned, A. D. 1422, at Poitiers; but Henry the Seventh of England, had already been proclaimed king of France, in accordance with the treaty of Troyes. The Duke of Bedford, the English regent, gained a great victory over the army of Charles, consisting partly of Scotch and other auxiliaries (A. D. 1424). This dreadful disaster to Charles was followed (A. D. 1428) by the siege of Orleans, the last stronghold of his party, while no hope was entertained by the French of being able to repel its assailants.

The deliverance of Charles was, however, effected by one of the most extraordinary occurrences recorded in history. Joan of Arc, a simple peasant girl, had been told of a prophecy, to the effect that France could be delivered from its enemies only by a virgin; and she became impressed with the idea that to her had been divinely committed the task of effecting this great object. She also said she heard voices that told her this. She soon induced others to believe in the truth of her mission, among them the king and his chief officers, and was admitted into Orleans, arrayed in armor, and provided with a train of attendants (A. D. 1429).

Under her leadership, the French attacked the English with renewed courage, and soon compelled them to raise the siege. She next urged the king to march to Rheims, in order to assume the crown of his ancestors according to the accustomed rites; and, partly under her leadership, the French, after several victorious battles, reached the city, which the English were compelled to surrender, and the king was crowned in the great cathedral. Joan then declared her mission ended, and wished to be dismissed; but her services being still demanded, she remained in the army, and a short time afterward fell into the power of the English, and was burnt to death at Rouen on a charge of sorcery. Nothing, however, was gained by the English from this cruel execution of the "Maid of Orleans," for they continued to suffer defeat until they finally lost all their French possessions except Calais.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE WORLD'S DECISIVE BATTLES—Continued

(Defeat of Spanish Armada to Waterloo)

The Spanish Armada—Battle of Blenheim—Battle of Pultowa—Burgoyne's Defeat at Saratoga—Battle of Valmy—Battle of Waterloo.

DEFEAT OF THE SPANISH ARMADA

WHEN Mary Queen of Scots fled across the border and came to implore the pity of Elizabeth, the English queen cast her into prison, where she remained for eighteen years. During this time Elizabeth was constantly harassed by plots formed by her Catholic subjects in behalf of the prisoner. When one Babington formed a conspiracy for assassinating Elizabeth and placing Mary on the throne, the latter became liable to the punishment for treason. She was subjected to a formal trial in her prison and found guilty.

The warrant for her execution was delayed by the reluctance—real or pretended—of Elizabeth. At last the queen signed the warrant and sent her secretary with it to the chancellor, that it might receive the great seal. Recalling this order next day, she found that she was too late; the seal was affixed, and the warrant was on the way to Fotheringay

prison. There, in one of the castle halls, in the gray light of a February morning (A. D. 1587), Mary Stuart, aged forty-five, was beheaded.

The Catholic powers of the Continent formed many schemes for annoying or dethroning Elizabeth, and these finally culminated in a great invasion by Spain. The Invincible Armada, the most formidable fleet ever seen up to that time, was fitted out against England. This armament consisted of 129 ships, 3,000 cannon and 20,000 men, while 34,000 additional land forces prepared to join from the Netherlands.

In July, 1588, the Armada entered the English Channel. Thirty vessels prepared to meet the Spanish fleet. The command was taken by Lord Howard, of Effingham. The English fleet attacked the Armada in the channel, and was found to have a considerable advantage in the lightness and manageableness of the vessels. After seven days, only three of which passed without warm actions, though there was no decisive engagement, the Spanish fleet was so harassed and damaged that it was forced to take shelter in the roads of Calais. The English during the night sent in fire-ships, which destroyed several vessels and threw the others into such confusion that the Spaniards no longer thought of victory, but of escape. At daybreak they were attacked by Howard, Drake and Lord Henry Seymour, and though the Spaniards fought gallantly, they were completely at disadvantage. In seamanship and gun practice they were inferior to their adversaries, and their great floating castles were no match for the active little English vessels. Had not the queen's ill-timed parsimony kept her fleet insufficiently supplied with powder, the Armada would have been destroyed.

As it was, the Spanish leader, the Duke of Medina Sidonia, attempted to return home by sailing round the north of Scotland; but dreadful storms arose, scattering the fleet about in the seas of Scotland and Ireland; and of the triumphant navy that sailed from Lisbon but a third part returned in a wretched state to tell of the calamity.

This success was regarded as a triumph, not so much of England as of the Protestant cause throughout Europe. It virtually established the independence of the Dutch, raised the courage of the Huguenots in France and completely destroyed the decisive influence that Spain had acquired in the affairs of Europe.

BATTLE OF BLENHEIM, A. D. 1704

This conflict, which took place during the War of the Spanish Succession, between England and France, was precipitated by the same considerations which played such an important part in the European war of 1914, namely, the balance of power.

The king of Spain, Charles II, died in the year 1700, leaving no children, but leaving a will by which he bequeathed the succession of his house to a grandson of Louis XIV, named Philip of Anjou. This at once alarmed the nations of Europe as a menace to the balance of power, for Philip of Anjou was a mere boy. The astute and ambitious Louis XIV would himself be the real ruler, and the close union of two such kingdoms as France and Spain was greatly to be feared.

Accordingly the German Emperor and William III of England united with Holland and Prussia to prevent Philip's

SERVIAN TROOPS BEHIND HIGH PROTECTED EARTHWORKS

SERVIAN TROOPS MARCHING OUT OF BELGRADE

wearing the crown of Spain. They supported the claims of the Archduke Charles, second son of the German Emperor, as King of Spain. William III, who was the head of the coalition, died in the midst of his hopes and preparations; but two men rose in his place. One of these was the greatest general except one in the annals of England, John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough; the other, Prince Eugene of Savoy, who headed the armies of the Emperor.

This War of the Spanish Succession lasted for thirteen years (1701-1714), and resulted in the humiliation of Louis XIV, who was defeated in all his plans. This war was marked by the memorable battle of Blenheim (a small village in Bavaria, on the Danube, near Augsburg), Ramillies, Oudenarde and Malplaquet, where Marlborough sent the marshals of the French king in headlong flight. Gibraltar was wrested forever from Spain and attached to England. The French fleets were burned at Vigo, and Toulon was besieged by sea and land. Prince Eugene in the meantime crushed the French power in Italy and approached the boundaries of France. Domestic sorrow, too, came to Louis. His only son died, then two of his grandsons; and nobody remained in the direct line of succession to the old man of seventy-four but a great-grandson, then a child in arms.

BATTLE OF PULTOWA, A. D. 1709

When Charles XII, sometimes called the "Madman of the North," succeeded to the throne of Sweden, in 1697, his passion for conquest and military glory at once plunged his country into war, which led to many miseries and misfortunes. A coalition formed against him by Denmark, Poland

and Russia led to the Northern War, in which Charles gained several brilliant victories over the Danes and Russians; and having succeeded in dethroning the king of Poland, placed in his stead Stanislas (1704). Quite intoxicated by success, he prepared to invade Russia. Peter the Great, Czar of Russia, offered terms of peace, but Charles declared that he could negotiate only at Moscow. When the czar was informed of this haughty answer, he coolly replied, "My brother Charles affects to play the part of Alexander, but I hope he will not find in me a Darius."

The strategy adopted by Peter for the purpose of meeting this invasion was simple and sensible. The advance of the Swedes on the direct line to Moscow was prevented by the destruction of the roads and the desolation of the country. Notwithstanding privations and misfortunes, Charles continued the campaign even in the depth of winter, though the season was so severe that 2,000 men were at once frozen to death, almost in his presence.

At length Charles laid siege to Pultowa, which contained one of the czar's principal magazines. The town was obstinately defended, and Charles was wounded in the heel while viewing the works. Before he recovered he learned that Peter was advancing to raise the siege. Leaving 7,000 men to guard the works, the Swedes advanced to intercept the Russians, accompanied by their king borne in a litter. The battle was decided by the Russian artillery, for Charles in his rapid march had abandoned his cannon. In less than two hours the Swedish army was ruined, and Charles, with only 300 followers, sought shelter within the frontiers of Turkey. He succeeded in persuading the Turkish emperor to declare war against Russia; but he afterward quarreled

with the emperor, and was compelled, after remaining more than five years in Turkey, to flee.

To pursue the subsequent career of Charles XII would be aside from our purpose here. Suffice it to say that this astonishing man ran a course of nine years longer—a course of strange ups and downs—and was finally killed by a cannon ball while besieging the castle of Fredericshall in Norway, 1718.

BURGOYNE'S DEFEAT BY THE AMERICANS AT SARATOGA, 1777

George III of England in 1760 ascended a glorious throne. Through the energy and foresight of William Pitt, known as the Great Commoner, Britain had become the first nation in the world.

The reign of George III was fruitful in Colonial history. Indeed, ere it was five years old, symptoms of the great, and to Britain disastrous, American War began to appear. The trouble arose during the administration of Mr. Grenville, showing itself decisively on the passage of the Stamp Act, in 1765, for the purpose of raising a revenue in America. The measure was greatly opposed in Parliament by the Earl of Chatham and others, as impolitic and unjust. The government insisted on its right to tax the colonies, and the latter, after a resistance of ten years, were finally driven into the War of the Revolution, which commenced at Lexington, in Massachusetts, April 19, 1775. The next year, the thirteen colonies, through their representatives in Congress, declared their independence (July 4, 1776), which, after a determined struggle of nearly seven years, they successfully achieved, the British general Cornwallis, being compelled to surrender

his army to George Washington at Yorktown (October 19, 1781).

Previous to this event, the Americans under General Gates had compelled the surrender of a British army under Burgoyne, at Saratoga (1777), and the French king, Louis XVI, taking advantage of this success, had acknowledged the independence of the colonies. A war, therefore, ensued between England and France, which continued until 1783, when a treaty of peace was concluded at Paris, one of the conditions of which was that the independence of the American colonies should be acknowledged by England.

General Gates, after the victory at Saratoga, immediately despatched Colonel Wilkinson to carry the happy tidings to Congress. On being introduced into the hall, he said: "The whole British army has laid down its arms at Saratoga; our own, full of vigor and courage, expect your order. It is for your wisdom to decide where the country may still have need for their service."

Of the ultimate result, Botta, the Italian historian, says:

"No one any longer felt any doubt about their achieving their independence. All hoped, and with good reason, that a success of this importance would at length determine France, and the other European powers that waited for her example, to declare themselves in favor of America. There could no longer be any question respecting the future, since there was no longer the risk of espousing the cause of a people too feeble to defend themselves."

BATTLE OF VALMY, 1792

The spirit of revolution which had set France in a blaze menaced every throne, and it behooved the kings of Europe

to see to their own safety. Armies were raised by Austria and Prussia to defend the royal cause, hostilities were threatened, and the Legislative Assembly declared for war, April 20, 1792. Soon afterward a force of 70,000 Prussians and 68,000 Austrians and emigrant French royalists crossed the frontier. Perhaps no effort on the part of his most eager enemy could have so injured the cause and periled the safety of Louis XVI. The Assembly replied by fitting out an army of 20,000 national volunteers, and giving the command to General Dumouriez, who in several actions repelled the invaders.

During the battle, the King of Prussia, indignant at the repulse by Kellerman (father of the distinguished officer of that name whose cavalry charge decided the battle of Marengo), formed the flower of his men in person, reproached them for their lack of support, and led them on again to the attack. But Dumouriez had arrived with reinforcements for Kellerman. Again the Prussians retreated, leaving 800 dead behind, and the French were the victors on the heights of Valmy.

BATTLE OF WATERLOO, 1815

So unpopular did Louis XVIII make himself that soon all hearts began to turn once more to the exile of Elba-Napoleon. And he was now to startle Europe with a new appearance on the stage.

In the early part of 1815, after ten months in Elba, Napoleon escaped. Landing near Cannes, he pushed on to Paris with Marshal Ney, who had been sent to oppose his progress, but who had deserted to him, and, joined by a small body

of troops, reached Paris without firing a shot. He was greeted with acclamations of joy by all classes (March 20, 1815). Louis XVIII fled to Ghent. At this time a congress was sitting at Vienna, and the task of reconstructing the map of Europe, so roughly disturbed by Napoleon, was going on when the news came. The news is said to have been greeted by the assembled diplomatists first with a silent stare of incredulity and then with a roar of laughter.

But Napoleon was in Paris, levying troops, and in less than two months an army was organized of over 200,000 men, exclusive of the National Guards.

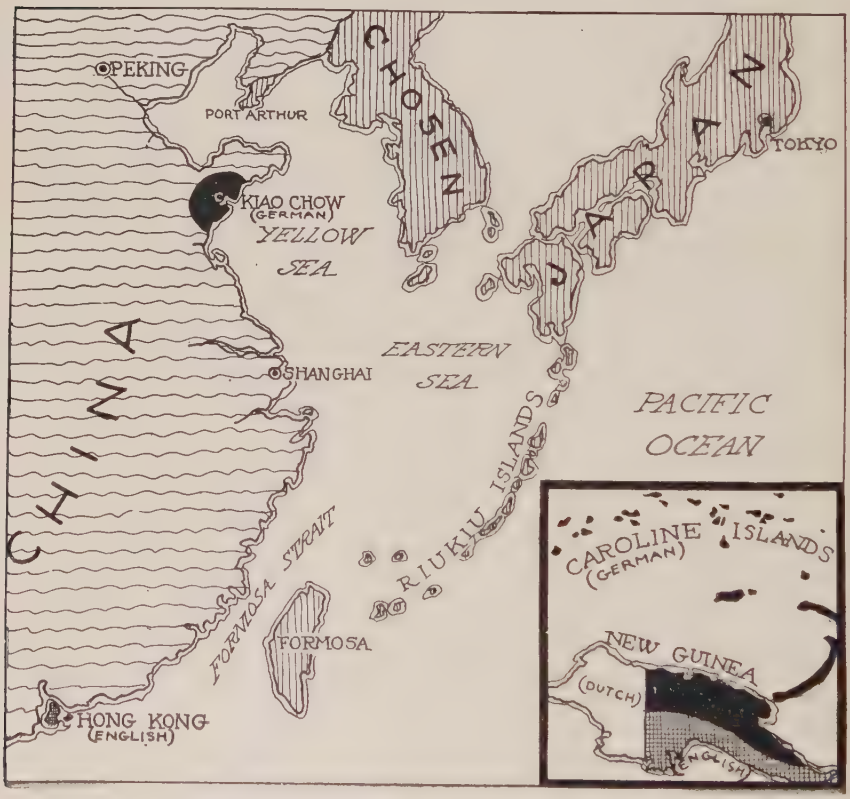
Meantime, the allies, realizing that action must be prompt and decisive, immediately declared Bonaparte an outlaw, and poured their armies toward France, for the impending conflict. Three vast armies were collected; the first consisting of Austrians, under Prince Schwarzenberg; the second, of British, Germans and Prussians, under Wellington and Blucher, and the third, of Russians, under the Emperor Alexander.

Resolving to deal first with the enemies nearest to him, Napoleon invaded Belgium, where lay the English and Prussians under Wellington and Blucher. Operations commenced on the 15th of June; and, on the 18th, was fought the memorable battle of Waterloo, in which the allies under Wellington repulsed the French and drove them into irretrievable retreat and ruin.

Hastening to Paris to announce that all was lost, Napoleon found that his star had set. On June 22, 1815, he signed his second abdication, and the allies, entering Paris fifteen days later, reinstated Louis XVIII as King of France. Napoleon, balked in his effort to escape to the United States,

surrendered himself to the commander of a British vessel of war. But the British government regarded him as a tiger who was better chained than free, and he lived on the lonely rock of St. Helena until his death, May 5, 1821.

His last words, as he lay dying amid the crash and glare of a tropical thunder storm were, "Tete d'armee!" ("Head of the army!")



GERMAN WAR BASE IN CHINA

CHAPTER XXX

THE WORLD'S DECISIVE BATTLES—Cont'd.

QUEBEC TO TSU-SHIMA

The Fall of Quebec—Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown —Battle of Vicksburg—Battle of Gettysburg—Battle of Sedan—Battle of Manila Bay—Battles of Santiago —Battle of Tsu-Shima.

THE FALL OF QUEBEC, A. D. 1759

NOTWITHSTANDING a treaty of peace was made with France at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, by which Maria Theresa's claim to the throne was confirmed, the war was soon after renewed in consequence of disputes respecting the boundary of the French and English territories in America.

The decisive battle of this series was fought in 1759. Before daylight on the morning of September 13, Wolfe, with 1,700 picked men in thirty boats, floated down the St. Lawrence in the shadow of the almost unsurmountable cliffs reaching to the Plains of Abraham above, passed the shore sentinels by the pretense that they were provision convoys; and, landing two miles above Quebec, climbed a small, winding path, sighted by Wolfe two days before, and reached the plains above. Nothing daunted by the abattis and trenches which obstructed the path, the climbing party of

twenty-four men reached the top; and, overcoming the weak guard of a hundred men, made way for their comrades. An hour later, 4,500 men of the British army were in battle array before the walls of Quebec.

Montcalm, on the other side of the St. Charles, though amazed at the daring feat, massed his troops and gave battle. The conflict lasted seven hours, and both generals fell on the field of battle; the British lost fifty-eight killed and 597 wounded, while the French losses were 300 killed and 900 wounded and taken prisoners of war. In extreme disorder, the helpless garrison of Quebec surrendered, September 17, 1759, and England was virtually given possession of Canada.

SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS AT YORKTOWN

The year preceding this momentous event gave small promise at the outset that the American struggle for independence would end within the near future. The English held New York, and Cornwallis was confident of victory in the South. The army of the latter, however, was soon worn out by the brilliant campaigning of Greene and the strategy of Lafayette, and he settled himself at Yorktown.

Washington, who from New York was watching the Southern campaigns closely, learned that the French fleet under Count de Grasse was leaving the West Indies for the purpose of taking a hand in the operations in Virginia, and at once planned a new and brilliant campaign. Assembling with his own army the French troops of Rochambeau, from Newport, Washington tricked Clinton, the British commander in New York, into the belief that that city was to be besieged; and, having thrown the enemy off their

guard, hurried the American and French armies to Chesapeake Bay. Here he was joined by the West Indian fleet of de Grasse, and another fleet which had been sent from Newport. De Grasse held Chesapeake Bay against the attack of Admiral Graves and the British fleet. If Rodney, instead of Graves, had commanded the British fleet, the victory would have been with the English, who, retaining control of the water, would have given support to Cornwallis in the South, and saved his army, and brought to naught Washington's carefully laid plans.

The news that Cornwallis had surrendered caused much joy throughout the American colonies; and at Philadelphia, the seat of the national government, the enthusiasm of the people knew no bounds. Congress, assembling at an early hour, heard Washington's dispatch read, then went in a body to the Lutheran church to "return thanks to the Almighty God for crowning the allied arms of the United States and France with success."

The effect on England of the struggle which ended at Yorktown is described by Buckle, in his "History of Civilization," as follows:

"In order to enforce the monstrous claim of taking a whole people without their consent, there was waged against America a war ill-conducted, unsuccessful, and, what is far worse, accompanied by cruelties disgraceful to a civilized nation. To this may be added, that an immense trade was nearly annihilated; every branch of commerce was thrown into confusion; we were disgraced in the eyes of Europe; we incurred an expense of 140,000,000 pounds; and we lost by far the most valuable colonies any nation has ever possessed."

BATTLE OF VICKSBURG, JANUARY-JULY, 1863

After Farragut had cleared the lower Mississippi River, Vicksburg was the sole remaining link uniting the eastern and western territory of the Confederacy; and the capture of that city by Grant cut the Confederacy in two, and, like Gettysburg, turned the tide of fortune toward the North.

It was the purpose of Grant, who commanded 50,000 men, to push southward through Mississippi and flank Vicksburg, thus ensuring its fall; but he was overruled by his superiors, and his troops divided, almost two-thirds of them being given to Sherman with orders to proceed down the river from Memphis. Grant hoped for cooperation between himself and Sherman, but this was impossible; there was not even a means of communication between them.

John A. McClernand, who at the outbreak of the war was a member of Congress from Illinois, and later commanded a division at Donelson and Shiloh, overcame the reluctance of Lincoln and Stanton and prevailed upon them to permit him to raise and command a large force in the West, for the purpose of taking Vicksburg. The result was thirty regiments, with which McClernand joined Sherman; the latter was given a subordinate place, and McClernand assumed command of the combined forces. Though the victory was due to Sherman and the navy, the credit went to McClernand, who was nominally the commander.

After four weary months of hardship, accompanied by innumerable efforts to gain access to the city, which had been proved impregnable, Grant resolved to try the river bank to the west. Below the town he was met by an abundance of supplies and ample means for placing it on the

other bank. Failing in his assault on the bluff to the south of the city, Grant drew the Confederate forces away from the upland by the ruse of running a few hundred cavalry through Mississippi from north to south, thus creating the impression of large numbers, and, unopposed, soon stood fairly on the left bank. A few more easy victories to the east and south gave him the desired advantage; and with the long delayed supplies and reinforcements now coming in unhindered, he was certain of success.

A six weeks' siege of the city followed. Grant's army, nearly doubled in size, and possessing an abundance of food and munitions, encircled the starving defenders; and on July 4, 1863, the city surrendered unconditionally.

BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG, JULY 1-3, 1863

The Battle of Gettysburg, one of the crucial events of military history, was the event which turned the tide of success from the South to the North, and marked the beginning of the end of the most momentous conflict in the history of America.

The organization by McClellan of the Army of the Potomac gave him a well disciplined force, with which he faced General Joseph Johnston in the early part of 1862; but the withdrawal of the Northern forces following the bloody fighting at Fair Oaks and the Seven Days' Battles crippled the Northern cause to a marked degree. Pope's defeat near Bull Run, the failure of the forward movement, the fact that the Northern forces had progressed only 100 miles—from Richmond to Washington—in the three months from June to September, the desperate battle of Antietam, fol-

lowed by the costly defeat of Burnside at Fredericksburg, closed a gloomy year in the East, and demonstrated the fighting qualities of the South. Fresh disaster to the Northern arms was seen in Hooker's defeat at Chancellorsville at the beginning of the new year.

Then the tide turned, and the result is spelled in one word —Gettysburg. The Confederates charged; the Federals converged, and the tide rolled slowly and heavily rearward. The South's hope of ultimate victory was crushed.

BATTLE OF SEDAN, SEPTEMBER 1, 1870

The *occasion* of the German war with France was the fact that Leopold, of Hohenzollern, a kinsman of the king of Prussia, allowed himself to be a candidate for the Spanish throne; but the underlying *cause* was the intense jealousy of Napoleon III. at the success of Prussia in gathering so great a part of Germany around herself.

The French armies, under Marshals McMahon and Bazaine, marched to the Rhine. But the German states, with perfect unanimity, joined all their forces under King William of Prussia, to repel the invaders; and immense armies, splendid in discipline and equipment, were promptly concentrated near the east bank of the Rhine, under the Prussian monarch, aided by Von Moltke and other generals. In the first conflicts, McMahon was defeated and driven into retreat; but he took up a strong position at Sedan. Here was fought a great and decisive battle, on September 1, 1870; and the French, driven from their position and completely surrounded, were compelled to surrender. More than 80,000 men laid down their arms; the Emperor Napo-

leon III., who was present with this army, yielded his sword to King William, and received as his residence the Castle of Wilhelmshohe, near Cassel. While a part of the German army marched on Paris and invested that city, Bazaine was shut up in Metz, where, on the 21st of October, he surrendered his army prisoners of war.

BATTLE OF MANILA BAY, MAY 1, 1898

Few possessions have been the subject of more discussion in state departments than the Island of Cuba. During the whole of the nineteenth century, it was said, officially and unofficially, that the "Union can never enjoy repose nor possess reliable security as long as Cuba is not embraced within its boundaries." The incident of the American schooner Virginius, in 1873, gave added impetus to the movement for the control of Cuba by the United States, despite the apologies of Spain in the matter. The same may be said of the Cuban "Ten Years' War," from 1868 to 1878, which was characterized by great cruelty and destructive losses of life and property involving American interests. Spain's repeated promises to better conditions on the island amounted to nothing; and when the conditions of rioting extended to Havana itself, the United States sent the cruiser Maine on a friendly visit to that port.

Three weeks after her arrival, the Maine, while lying at her harbor moorings, was blown up, with a loss of 266 lives. The verdict of the American Court of Inquiry was that she was destroyed from the outside; the Spanish inquiry resulted in a verdict that internal causes destroyed the vessel.

President McKinley was powerless against the popular

sentiment in favor of war with Spain; Congress was carried away by the wave of intense feeling, and, on April 25, 1898, war with Spain was formally declared. For the first time since 1812 America was at war with a European nation.

The principal scene of conflict was not the island of Cuba, as many people had assumed; but, with the exception of the one battle of Santiago, was in the Pacific. A formidable Spanish squadron lay in Manila Bay; and immediately upon the declaration of war, Commodore Dewey, who, with his fleet, had been in the harbor of Hong Kong for a month, awaiting developments, sailed for Manila, following the receipt of a cable from President McKinley directing him to capture or destroy the Spanish fleet.

On Saturday night, April 30, the Spanish fort, discovering the presence of the American vessels, opened fire, and was silenced with a six-inch shell from the Concord. The next morning, the famous Battle of Manila Bay took place; and no war ever furnished a more decisive victory. No lives were lost on the American side; and, with the exception of four men who were wounded through the explosion of a Spanish shell on the Baltimore, none was injured. The damage to the American ships was slight; the Spanish fleet was annihilated, and the casualties amounted to about 400 men. The guns of Commodore Dewey had demolished the water batteries of Cavite and made the city of Manila defenseless. The entire Spanish arsenal was captured.

On this May day, Spain was expelled from the Pacific, and her heritage of Asiatic power passed to the United States.

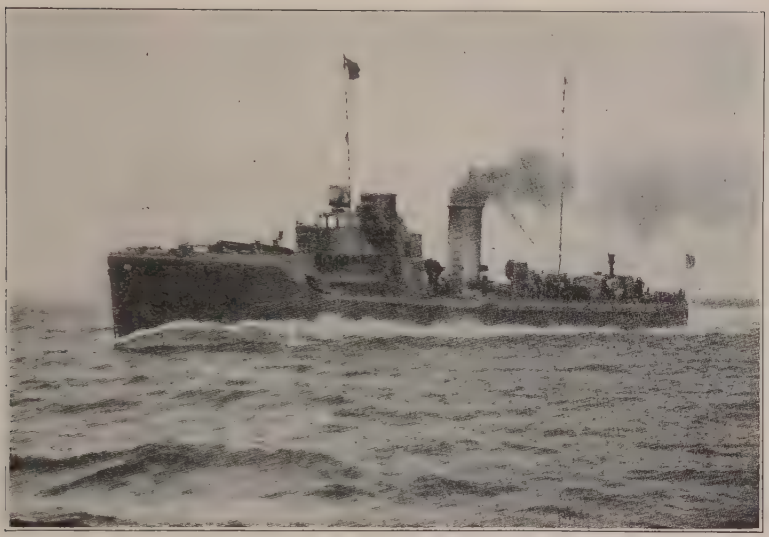
THE BATTLES OF SANTIAGO, 1898

The first step taken by the American government was the blockade of Cuba, in order to quickly bring things to an issue; and, early in 1898, a large portion of the American navy was assembled in Florida waters. At the same time, men whose terms of enlistment were about to expire were retained in the service, and every effort was made, in various ways, to bring the navy up to the highest standard of efficiency.

In April, 1898, Admiral Cervera's division of the Spanish fleet sailed from the Cape Verde Islands; its destination was unknown, and for two weeks it disappeared from the map, so to speak. Speculation was rife as to its whereabouts, and the American navy continually patrolled West Indian waters in search of the phantom fleet, which, on May 12th, appeared off Martinique. The navy department, having heard that Cervera was rushing munitions of war to Cuba, and that he intended to ship them to Havana by rail from the southern coast of the island, distributed the American fleet from Cienfuegos to Santiago de Cuba, to intercept him. The Spanish squadron, unobserved by the scouting cruisers, slipped into Santiago on May 19; and on the same day, spies in Havana notified the department to that effect. This was two days before Schley's arrival at Cienfuegos, and Cervera could easily have made that port had he known the conditions.

On May 28, Schley, returning to Santiago, after the much discussed retrograde movement to the west, blockaded that port. Admiral Sampson arrived four days later and assumed command of the squadron. The blockade lasted

LIFE ON A WARSHIP



NEW GERMAN TORPEDO BOAT G. 8

CATCHING A SPENT TORPEDO

almost five weeks, and was eagerly watched by people everywhere. This period was marked by the daring but unsuccessful attempt made by Lieutenant Hobson to sink the collier Merrimac across the harbor entrance. The plan miscarried; and Hobson and his men, escaping death as by a miracle, were captured by the Spaniards.

Immediately upon the bottling up in Santiago of Cervera and his fleet, it was decided to send an army to cooperate with the navy; and the 200,000 volunteers who had enlisted in May were sent to the front. After several desperate battles had been fought in the rear of Santiago, the Spaniards, on July 3, ceased firing. The losses in the three days' fight were eighteen officers and 127 men killed, 65 officers and 849 men wounded, and 72 men missing.

Because of the advance made by the American troops on Santiago, the Spanish Captain-General, Blanco, ordered Cervera out of the harbor, where he had been "bottled up" for two weeks. Cervera, knowing that he was leading a forlorn hope, obeyed. Sampson, long under the impression that the Spanish fleet would attempt to escape under cover of darkness, kept his ships close to shore, with dazzling search-lights constantly playing on the harbor entrance.

The following morning, July 3, the Spanish ships were discovered steaming out of the harbor; and the American vessels at once closed in on them. In a little over three hours the battle was over; on the American side, only one man was killed and one wounded, while the Spaniards lost about six hundred in killed and wounded. The entire Spanish fleet was wiped out, with the exception of the Colon, which returned to shore and surrendered. The American

sailors effected gallant rescues of the officers and crews of the burning vessels, and extended every humanity to the prisoners.

On July 3, the surrender of the Spanish forces at Santiago being refused by Toral, Shafter, after giving the women and children two days in which to evacuate, bombarded the city. At this juncture, Miles arrived with additional troops intended for Porto Rico; and, with Shafter, met Toral under a flag of truce and arranged terms for the surrender, which took place a week later. Following this, Miles invaded Porto Rico, and had gained control of all the southern and western portions of the island, when hostilities were suspended by the peace protocol. The American losses here were nominal.

Manila was assaulted and captured on August 13, the day after the signing of the protocol. The news of the signing had not, of course, reached the Philippines at this time.

BATTLE OF TSU-SHIMA (SEA OF JAPAN)

Since time out of mind Russia has looked longingly upon the territory to the south and east of her, as affording her seaports free from ice. Following her steady progress across Asia, she founded Vladivostock, in the Sea of Japan, in 1861, thereby obtaining a Pacific seaport.

Japan was deprived by the great powers of her prizes following the war between herself and China; among these was Port Arthur, which was occupied in 1898 by the Russians, under a secret treaty with China. The latter country afterward gave Russia permission to extend her railroad lines to Port Arthur; and the czar at once began to multiply

supplies and fortifications at that point. Japan protested, and Russia promised to evacuate Manchuria; but she did not do so.

Japan decided to strike; and, on February 6, 1904, she recalled her minister from St. Petersburg, and sent the Russian minister home. Two days afterward, Admiral Togo attacked the Russian fleet at Port Arthur; and the result gave Japan naval supremacy in the Pacific. By May, she had sent three armies Russiaward. Then came the defeat by Kuroki of Zassulitch at the Yalu, the defeat of Stoessel and the investment of Port Arthur, the defeat of Stakelberg, when he attempted to bring relief, and the long and bloody siege of Port Arthur, which terminated in its surrender, January 2, 1905.

Meantime, the great Battle of Liao-Yang, fought in August and September, by Oyama, had caused the Russian army of Manchuria to retreat to Mukden. In March, 1905, Kuropatkin was driven from there; and the Japanese, having a free hand since the fall of Port Arthur, pressed on, and occupied Tie-Ling a few days afterward.

Russia, realizing the ineffectiveness of her army, determined to send her Baltic fleet to the rescue; and, on October 15, 1904, Admiral Rojestvensky sailed from Cronstadt. The general inefficiency of the Russian navy, which had long been a matter of common report, was established when the Russian vessels, off the Dogger Bank in the German Ocean, fired upon some defenseless English fishing craft, killing several men, then steamed onward, without investigation. The Russian admiral afterward reported that it was his impression that the craft in question were Japanese torpedo boats; but this explanation did not satisfy, and an apology

and payment of a money indemnity to England were necessary to close the incident.

At Tangier, the Russian fleet was divided, part of it taking the Suez Canal route, while the remainder went around the Cape of Good Hope. In May, 1905—seven months later—the fleet left Annam, and, like Cervera's, in the Spanish-American War, dropped out of sight for two weeks, despite the active efforts of the Japanese authorities to locate it. It then became apparent that Rojestvensky intended to try to make Vladivostock, that he might obtain a base of supplies, and refit. The Japanese were determined to prevent this, and to force the Russian commander to give battle while he was in a condition of unpreparedness.

The Japanese parcelled out the Sea of Japan like a checker-board, knowing that Rojestvensky would attempt one of the passages there. On May 27, the Russians were sighted in Square 203, in the eastern channel, east of the Island of Tsu-Shima. Togo, to prevent the escape of the Russians to the north, toward Vladivostock, threw his fleet across the Russian column, thus bringing a crushing and concentrated fire on the leading Russian ships, and at the same time masking the guns of the Russian vessels in the rear.

The unequal battle continued, with one catastrophe after another befalling the ships of the czar, until sunset, when Admiral Togo ordered into action the torpedo fleet; and throughout the night these harried the wearied and disorganized foe. The following morning, May 28, Admiral Nebogatoff, in charge of the remaining five vessels—all that was left of the powerful Russian fleet—hauled down his flag and surrendered.

In its material results, and as an epoch-making event, the Battle of Tsu-Shima ranks with the decisive battles of the world. Japan, checking the aggressions of Russia in the Orient, had changed the map of the world once more, and had taken a place in the council of the nations.

THIS IS WHAT WAR MEANS

CHAPTER XXXI

NEUTRALITY OF THE UNITED STATES

President Wilson's Proclamation of Neutrality—United States Declared to Be Absolutely Neutral in Great Conflict—Recognizes the State of War—Acts Forbidden to Americans—Acts Forbidden to Belligerents—President's Warning to Americans to Keep Calm—Wilson's Offer of Mediation to Warring Powers—Powers Courteously Decline Proffer.

WHILE the European nations were leaping at each other's throats it was only natural that the gigantic conflict that was getting under way would shake the United States. But here only the tremors were felt for President Wilson proclaimed the neutrality of the United States on August 4.

The proclamation was drawn by Counsellor Lansing of the State Department and Secretary of State Bryan took it with him to the regular meeting of the Cabinet. There the President submitted the document to the members of the Cabinet and it was approved. It was formally issued within thirty minutes of the beginning of the Cabinet meeting.

In form the proclamation followed closely the document

of the same character issued by President Roosevelt at the time of the Russo-Japanese war. It provided for the absolute neutrality of the United States and informed the peoples of the world that this country would live up to its declarations.

In the preamble the existence of a state of war between Austria and Servia, between Germany and Russia and between Germany and France was formally recognized. It was stated that the laws and treaties of the United States imposed on all persons residing therein the duty of strict neutrality, and that it was the duty of a neutral government not to permit the making of its waters subservient to the purposes of war.

The President, therefore, made known the acts which were forbidden to be done within the United States, in order that the neutrality of the nation and of its citizens and other residents might be preserved. Eleven restrictions were placed on the people and these acts are prohibited:

Accepting or exercising a commission to serve with one belligerent against another.

Enlisting or entering the service of any belligerent as a soldier, sailor, marine or otherwise.

Hiring or obtaining another person to enlist.

Hiring another to go beyond the limits of the United States for the purpose of enlisting.

Hiring another to leave the country with the intent to be enlisted.

Retaining another to leave the United States with intent to be enlisted.

Fitting out, or procuring the fitting out, or being con-

cerned in the fitting out or arming, of any ship with intent that such ship shall be employed in the service of any belligerent.

Issuing or delivering a commission for any ship, to the intent that she may be employed by any belligerent.

In any way taking part in the increasing or augmentation of the force or armament of any ship of war belonging to a belligerent.

Setting on foot or aiding in the preparation of any military expedition from the United States against the territories of the belligerents.

FORBIDS USE OF UNITED STATES WATERS

The proclamation set forth that the use of the waters of the United States by any armed vessel of a belligerent, for preparation for hostilities, or for spying, must be regarded as unfriendly and offensive. Consequently after August 5 no such vessel was permitted to use any port from which a vessel from an opposing belligerent previously departed within twenty-four hours.

Vessels of the belligerents were required to depart from any port they enter within twenty-four hours, except in case of stress of weather, requiring provisions for the subsistence of her crew or for repairs.

If several ships of opposing belligerents shall enter a harbor they are to be required to depart, alternately, at intervals of twenty-four hours, the proclamation ordered.

Only such supplies as are necessary for the crew shall be carried from a port by any armed vessel of a belligerent, and only so much coal as will enable her to get to her nearest

home port; it continued adding that vessels using both steam and sail power are to be allowed only half as much coal, and no such vessel, without special permission, is to be allowed to coal twice within the waters of the United States within three months, unless she has in the meanwhile entered a port of the Government to which she belongs.

All citizens and residents were warned that they must not take any part in the war, but should remain at peace with all the belligerents; that they should not commit any act contrary to the treaties and laws of the United States, and that, although having the right to full and free expression of their sympathies, they must in no way aid any of the belligerents.

While all persons may manufacture and sell within the United States arms and munitions of war and other articles known as contraband of war, the carriage of such on the seas was prohibited, as was the transportation of the soldiers of belligerents and all attempts to break a blockade lawfully established. Such acts, the proclamation warned, will incur "the risk of hostile capture and the penalties denounced by the law of nations in that behalf."

The President's proclamation closed:

"And I do hereby give notice that all citizens of the United States and others, who may claim the protection of this Government, who may misconduct themselves in the premises, will do so at their peril; and that they can in no wise obtain any protection from the Government of the United States against the consequences of their misconduct."

PRESIDENT WARNS AMERICANS

Before this proclamation and while conditions in Continental Europe were getting worse day by day, President

Wilson took occasion to sound another warning to Americans. He told them to be calm in the face of the European crisis. He said:

"It is extremely necessary, it is manifestly necessary, in the present state of affairs on the other side of the water that you should be extremely careful not to add in any way to the excitement. Of course, the European world is in a highly excited state of mind, but the excitement ought not to spread to the United States.

"So far as we are concerned, there is no cause for excitement. There is great inconvenience, for the time being, in the money market and in our exchanges, and, temporarily, in the handling of our crops, but America is absolutely prepared to meet the financial situation and to straighten everything out without any material difficulty. The only thing that can possibly prevent it is unreasonable apprehension and excitement.

"If I might make a suggestion to you gentlemen, therefore, I would urge you not to give currency to any unverified rumor, to anything that would tend to create or add to excitement. I think that you will agree that we must all at the present moment act together as Americans in seeing that America does not suffer any unnecessary distress from what is going on in the world at large. The situation in Europe is perhaps the gravest in its possibilities that has arisen in modern times, but it need not affect the United States unfavorably in the long run.

"Not that the United States has anything to take advantage of, but her own position is sound and she owes it to mankind to remain in such a condition and in such a state of mind that she can help the rest of the world.

"I want to have the pride of feeling that America, if nobody else, has her self-possession and stands ready with calmness of thought and steadiness of purpose to help the rest of the world. And we can do it and reap a great permanent glory out of doing it, provided we all co-operate to see that nobody loses his head.

"I know from my conferences with the Secretary of the Treasury, who is in very close touch with the financial situation throughout the country, that there is no cause for alarm. There is cause for getting busy and doing the thing in the right way, but there is no element of unsoundness and there is no cause for alarm. The bankers and business men of the country are co-operating with the Government with a zeal, intelligence and spirit which make the outcome secure."

The day following the issuing of his neutrality proclamation President Wilson tended his good offices to the warring nations.

OFFER OF MEDIATION

In his cablegram to the German Emperor, the Czar of Russia, the Emperor of Austria-Hungary, the President of France and the King of England, he said:

"As official head of one of the powers signatory to The Hague Convention I feel it to be my privilege and my duty, under article three of that convention, to say to you in a spirit of most earnest friendship that I should welcome an opportunity to act in the interest of European peace, either now or at any other time that might be thought more suitable, as an occasion to serve you and all concerned in a way that would afford me lasting cause for gratitude and happiness."

Representatives of the German, Russian, Austrian, French and English Embassies were notified of the Executive's action by Secretary of State Bryan.

The President acted on his own initiative. He did not get suggestion from any neutral or belligerent country on the subject. He did what he considered his duty under The Hague Convention, which provides that "in case of serious disagreement or dispute, before an appeal to arms, the contracting powers agree to have recourse, as far as circumstances allow, to the good offices or mediation of one or more friendly powers.

"Independently of this recourse, the contracting powers deem it expedient and desirable that one or more powers, strangers to the dispute, should, on their own initiative, and as far as circumstances may allow, offer their good offices or mediation to the states as variance.

"Powers strangers to the dispute have the right to offer good offices or mediation even during the course of hostilities.

"The exercise of this right can never be regarded by either of the parties in dispute as an unfriendly act."

Servia and Montenegro were not included in the offer because they were not parties of The Hague Convention. Servia took part in the conferences but never ratified the document.

The Hague Convention, signed October 18, 1907, and ratified by the United States Senate April 2, 1908, and by the President of the United States February 23, 1909, and proclaimed a year later, provides that:

"The part of the mediator consists in reconciling the opposing claims and appeasing the feelings of resentment which may have arisen between the states at variance.

"The functions of the mediator are at an end when once it is declared, either by one of the parties to the dispute, or by the mediator himself, that the means of reconciliation proposed by him are not accepted.

"Good officers and mediation undertaken either at the request of the parties in dispute or on the initiative of powers strangers to the dispute have exclusively the character of advice, and never have binding force.

"The acceptance of mediation cannot, unless there be an agreement to the contrary, have the effect of interrupting, delaying, or hindering mobilization or other measures of preparation for war.

"If it takes place after the commencement of hostilities, the military operations in progress are not interrupted in the absence of an agreement to the contrary."

The responses to this offer of mediation were all of a friendly nature and written in a courteous tone but all the nations involved declared that they could not accept at this time.

CHAPTER XXXII

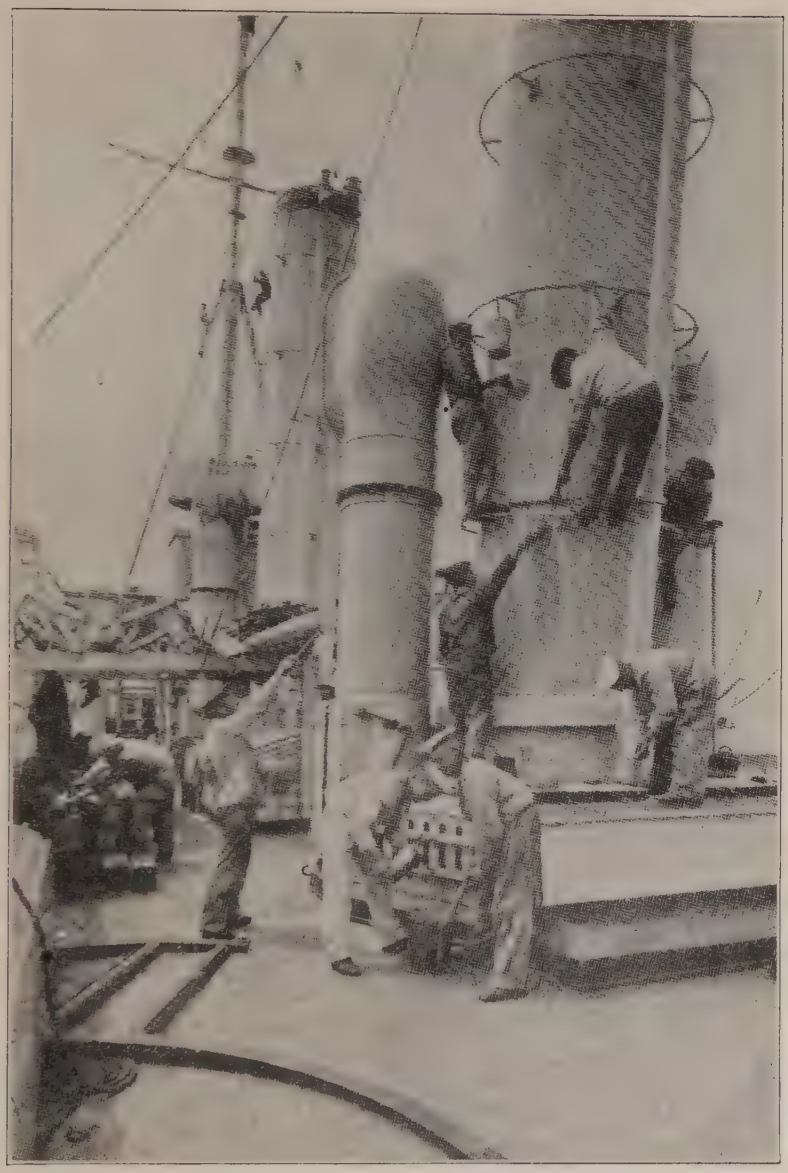
AMERICANS ABROAD AT OUTBREAK OF WAR

Americans Caught in War Zone—Service Rendered by American Diplomats—President Wilson's Call on Congress for Funds—$250,000 Immediately Voted for Relief of Stranded Americans—$2,500,000 More Voted for Same Purpose—Battleship Tennessee Sails With Gold Cargo on Mission of Relief—Refugees Arrive on the Philadelphia—The France and New York Return Crowded With Refugees—Stories of Thrilling Experiences.

OVER 250,000 Americans who had gone to Europe to tour the Continent or were temporary residents there were caught in the vortex of the war zone early in August. Many of the Americans abroad at the time of the outbreak of war had thrilling experiences. Many were stranded in strange countries, unable to get their travelers' checks cashed. They suffered great hardship. Nor was the lot of wealthy tourists a bit lighter than that of the thousands of school teachers who were traveling "in suit cases," so to speak.

The United States government took prompt steps to aid the stranded Americans. The State Department kept the cable wires hot between this country and Europe. Diplo-

CHASED BY A WARSHIP



PUTTING ON THE WAR PAINT

matic and consular officials to the warring countries received orders to relieve the suffering of Americans. In such a crisis the often scoffed at diplomatic service of the United States rose to heights of efficiency.

PRESIDENT APPEALS FOR FUNDS

President Wilson asked Congress to appropriate $250,000, on August 3, with which to relieve immediately Americans abroad. Congress promptly rushed through a bill granting that amount. The following day he asked for $2,500,000 in an additional appropriation.

The President's message read:

"After further consideration of the existing condition in Europe in so far as it is affecting citizens of the United States who are there without means, financial or otherwise, to return to their homes in this country, it seems incumbent upon the government to take steps at once to provide adequate means by the chartering of vessels or otherwise of bringing Americans out of the disturbed region and conveying them to their homes in the United States. Moreover, in view of the difficulty of obtaining money upon letters of credit with which most Americans abroad are supplied, it will be necessary to send agents abroad with funds which can be advanced on such evidences of credit or used for the assistance of destitute citizens of the United States.

"In these circumstances I recommend the immediate passage by the Congress of an act appropriating two million five hundred thousand dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary, to be placed at the disposal of the President for the relief, protection and transportation of American citizens

and for personal services, rent and other expenses which may be incurred in the District of Columbia or elsewhere connected with or growing out of the existing disturbance in Europe."

Congress promptly backed up President Wilson again, and on August 6 the money was on its way to Europe, stowed in the after magazines of the United States cruiser Tennessee. Assistant Secretary Breckinridge went in command of the work of relief. Officials of the United States Government who were abroad at the time were ordered to co-operate with Mr. Breckinridge in ascertaining the whereabouts of stranded Americans so that they might be able to obtain speedy relief.

The first of the American refugees from the real war zone reached this country on August 12 when, with 1,012 passengers, a crew of 300 men, and six mail clerks on board, the American Line steamship Philadelphia warped into her pier in New York. Never had the Philadelphia accommodated such a crowd. There were 703 second cabin passengers and 309 in the steerage. Three of the men in the steerage could have purchased the Philadelphia several times over, but their wealth was not great enough to buy a bed in a second cabin. There are no first cabins on the vessel. In one second cabin slept fifteen women. Some were compelled to sleep on deck, some in the dining saloon and others in the companionway. Many steerage passengers had the run of the deck and they were treated with the same consideration, as far as possible, as those occupying the cabins.

The Philadelphia, in charge of Captain Mills, sailed from Southampton August 5 and touched Queenstown next day. It was found on leaving Queenstown that there was hardly

standing room on deck for all the passengers. Men gave up their steamer chairs to women and had to remain on their feet. So crowded was the deck during the day that passengers stumbled over each other. The nights were cold and the men who were compelled to sleep in the open almost froze.

WARSHIPS COVER LINER

On leaving Queenstown the Philadelphia was followed by a British warship. Later another British vessel took the place of the first and kept close to the ship until she was well on her way. Soon after the last war vessel turned about after signalling "All right," the Philadelphia came upon several French torpedo boats.

One of the boats ran close to the liner and signalled "Stop!" Captain Mills did not obey, thinking that his flying the United States flag was sufficient for him to continue. Then came this signal from the French boat:

"Stop and stop quickly!"

The Philadelphia obeyed and the torpedo boat came so close that the wash from the liner almost swamped it.

Although the passengers suffered much discomfort throughout the trip because of the crowded condition of the ship, the weather was favoring them, except those who slept on deck. The passengers were mighty glad, however, to see Liberty, and when the Philadelphia was drawing into quarantine and a mail boat came alongside the passengers gave rousing cheers.

"We have a kaiser on board. What shall we do with him?" yelled one man, and the passengers laughed.

"Who played the Giants today?" asked another.

And so the ship rang with laughter and questions all the way up the bay to the pier.

GERMAN TROOPS STOP TRAIN

"I was in Dresden the day war was declared," said A. Assman, "and took the first train I could catch for Rotterdam. When we reached the border line the train was stopped by troops and every car belonging to a German company was detached from the train.

"At the time we had eight coaches, and all of them were crowded to the platforms. The taking off of three coaches was a serious matter. All the passengers from these coaches had to squeeze into the other already suffocatingly crowded coaches.

"But the greatest hardships were in getting to London. There is hardly a passenger on the Philadelphia who has not lost his or her baggage. One woman on board who lost all her trunks and jewels landed in London with just one shilling."

Milton Blumenthal, who boarded the Philadelphia at Southampton, was in Paris when war was declared against France by Germany.

"I left Paris at 5 o'clock next morning," he said. "At that time the excitement was intense. The walls of the city were placarded with signs which read:

" 'All men not over thirty-three go to the front.'

"Even at that hour the streets were crowded with excited throngs. I got to London as quickly as possible, but that wasn't very quick. This trip to London was disagreeable enough to be remembered a lifetime."

John A. Wilson, the President's cousin, appeared to be the happiest person in the list of bedraggled passengers, while Martin Vogel, Assistant Treasurer of the United States at New York, appeared to be the most unhappy. Mr. Vogel finished up his honeymoon aboard the Philadelphia. He said:

"Americans generally are in an extremely bad way in Paris and Berlin. The hotels are all closed in Paris and the waiters have all gone to the war. Many Americans are actually destitute. There was the case of young Mr. Widener of Philadelphia, whose automobile was taken from him by the French soldiers while he was touring through the country and his chauffeur was hustled off to carry a gun. Mr. Bonner, manager of the Ritz-Carlton of Philadelphia, also was relieved of his machine while about three miles from the Belgian frontier. He was left to hustle for himself.

"The plight of American women is peculiarly bad. Those who have no gold are being subjected to all sorts of indignities."

Max Annenburg, circulation manager of the Chicago Tribune, was one of the passengers on the Philadelphia. With his wife and two children he was in Hamburg at the outbreak of the trouble. He thus described his experiences:

NO GERMAN BOATS SAIL

"Those who were to sail by the Imperator, of which I was one, got into Hamburg on July 30 and had their baggage transferred to Cuxhaven, their tickets changed and everything in readiness to sail the next day. The next morn-

ing I woke up at my hotel and the elevator boy told me that there were no boats sailing from the German ports.

"Inside of an hour there was a mob of angry Americans storming the offices of the Hamburg-American Line.

"At last they told us that the ship would not sail and the passengers cashed in their tickets. Every one of them got their money in German coin and then made a rush for the first train for London.

"About two thousand were able to get aboard the train which left for Holland and the rest were left behind.

"The conditions on the train on which we left were horrible. The German troops jammed and pushed men, women and children aboard until we were fairly piled up in the aisles.

"Literally packed in like sardines, we rode to the Holland line with many stops. There the soldiers again came aboard the train and dumped everybody out. They said that the train had to go back to act as a troop train and that now we were on Dutch soil the Dutch would have to look after us. That was at 3 o'clock in the morning.

"We waited in the dark for about two hours and a half, when a Dutch train backed up and we boarded this for Flushing, where we were to ship for England. The trip ordinarily takes ten hours. It took us exactly eighteen hours and on the way we had neither food nor water."

"When I left Hamburg there were at least 15,000 trunks of Americans piled up on the Hamburg-American Line pier. No one will be able to get them until after the war.

"The boat from Flushing to London usually carries about 500 persons; there were 2,000 on the one on which I went over. In London we were in more difficulty because

German money was not accepted. From Saturday night until the Philadelphia sailed not a bank opened its doors.

"People coming from Berlin told me they were stopped in the streets and made to alight from automobiles. An officer would hand them receipts for their automobiles, and tell them they might have them after the war."

Leroy Vanderburgh of New York City was in Amsterdam July 31st when the mobilization order was given.

"The next day we tried to get out," he said, "but could not because the train service had been taken over by the government. There was tremendous excitement among the Dutch. A train was finally made up which took us to the Hook of Holland, where we were held for eighteen hours waiting for the last train from Berlin.

"One woman who came on that train from Strasburg told that the German soldiers had forced her to change cars eighteen times. Others had been put out of a train at 3 o'clock in the morning by German troops and forced to walk across the Holland line."

The France of the French Line arrived in New York on August 20th carrying 1,374 Americans from the war zone. In the steerage were forty-two Americans, some prominent; for example, a member of the Spanish Embassy at Washington and Charles Leddy, the artist, who painted portraits all the way over for the benefit of the Red Cross.

THE FRANCE MADE A FAST TRIP

Captain Mourand said he passed four cruisers, all in mid-Atlantic. He thought they were British and one the Tigress. The entrance to the English Channel was guarded by French

torpedo boats. He had two days of fog, and the France made more than twenty-two knots an hour part of the way. He came across with his lights burning, was challenged by an English cruiser and hoisted his colors.

On the day the France left her home port the eyes of Havre citizens were gladdened by the sight of 35,000 British troops landing from twenty transports. Bands played, the disembarkation was carried on with precision and Frenchmen danced with joy, literally embracing their fighting allies from across the channel.

Mrs. Wilson Howe, sister of President Wilson, and her daughter and granddaughter, all garbed in mourning, were aboard. Mrs. Howe said she had been in Dieppe, whence she caught the last train for Paris. She had only two pieces of baggage, but lost both. Ambassador Herrick sent the party from Paris to Havre in his automobile.

"Nobody can know the awful experience of Americans in a foreign land during mobilization," said Mrs. Totten, the wife of John R. Totten of New York. "The little details of official inspection, registration and a thousand annoyances are a small part of the indescribable situation. I was faint for lack of food. There were intervals of fourteen hours without anything to eat. I have only the dress I am wearing.

"We had motored through France, Germany and Switzerland, but had to give up our tour in Austria and leave our car and French chauffeur at Interlaken for the government. The proprietor of the Hotel du Rhein, where we stopped in Paris, was a German. Twice mobs threatened to blow up the hotel. They gave us half an hour to get out. We told the rioters Americans were in the hotel. They said

they would blow it up. We shifted to the Hotel Lotti, dragging our trunks."

DANCERS FORCED TO SLEEP IN AUTO

Mr. and Mrs. M. Maurice, the dancers, of Wilmington, Del., and Mr. Maurice's brother, whose professional name is Oscar Suzette, and his wife left Vichy August 10th. They engaged an auto for $1,000 and stopped en route, at St. Pierre, Chartiers, Dreux and Rouen. In Chartiers the police told them to get off the street or they would be locked up. They slept that night in their auto.

In another town they slept on straw in a hotel. At still another place they slept on the floor of the hotel office. Once they changed their machine, the first having been commandeered. Between Vichy and Havre their passports were vised fifty-seven times. They gave a dance there, raising 3,000 francs for the Red Cross.

At Havre Mr. Maurice's father had been searching for them.

They paid 4,875 francs for passage and only got aboard because so many passengers had left the ship at Havre.

Robert Morris of New York said he had rather a good time waiting in Havre.

Mrs. J. H. Potts of Chicago, with thirty-nine others, went from Paris to Havre on a cattle train. They were twelve hours on the road.

Jules Glaenzer of the Chartiers Company, jewelers, brought the five-year-old daughter of his partner, M. Chartier, who had gone to the war, while the little girl's mother had left Paris and was unable to return. Mr. Glaenzer said

his firm had hustled $40,000,000 of diamonds into the Bank of France in two hours August 2d, and 300 members of the firm and employes had left for the front. He, being an American citizen, was the only one who did not go to the war.

"STRANDED" WAS THE PASSWORD

Mr. and Mrs. Charles K. Baum were in the Morgan-Harjos Bank, Paris, awaiting a chance to have a draft honored. A stranger passed them.

"Stranded?" inquired the stranger.

"Stranded," said Mr. Baum.

"Here, take these 700 francs," said the unknown American.

"But I don't know you and you don't know me," replied Mr. Baum.

"Give me your I. O. U.," said the man. "I'll take your face."

The good angel was Charles Rowen.

In a bazaar Mr. Baum saw a hard-up fellow-countryman trying to buy two tickets from Paris to Havre. He did not know the man, but Mr. Baum paid for the tickets. The man met him on the France and paid him back the sum.

Francis Campbell of Morgan, Harjes & Co., Paris, said he had never seen mobilization so orderly. There was no brawling, he said, and the crowds had sung only national anthems.

"There was in Paris for a while a shortage of change, but the government issue of 5, 10 and 20 franc notes helped us out."

Little Miss Lucy Churchill McDannel, the daughter of

T. H. McDannel, landing agent of the Savannah line, with her mother, was studying in Paris before the hegira. They were on board the France seventeen days in all. Mrs. McDannel carried her clothes in a pillow case. She lost her trunks.

STATEROOM LAUNDRY ON SHIP

"Everybody who had lost his baggage," said Miss Lucy, who is thirteen years old, "washed his own clothes at night and dried them before morning. A Chicago doctor left his shoes outside his stateroom door, but by morning they had been mobilized."

Miss Florence Hatzfeld and Miss Lucy Collins of Philadelphia went two days without food because Paris shop keepers would not sell it. Miss Hatzfeld, on her way to Havre, was jolted off the cattle train on which everybody was standing. A pile of trunks fell on top of her. She was bruised, but not seriously injured. For ten days the young woman had no change of clothing. Miss Hatzfeld said all went to bed early and extinguished lights for fear of airships dropping bombs.

Mrs. Florence W. Lawrence and her fifteen-year-old daughter, Dorothy, lost all their trunks and money. They landed with two handbags. Mrs. Lawrence is the wife of the editor of the Chicago Examiner.

Jules S. F. Bache, the banker, said:

"America doesn't realize the troubled conditions in Europe. The suddenness of the whole thing was not realized. The main trouble was to get money, but the only thing worth while in Europe was gold."

Mrs. Walter Haynes, wife of a lawyer, waited eleven hours in Paris for food and fainted away during the interval.

Miss Edna Aug said that when the first regiments marched through the Rue de la Paix the hundreds of models appeared on the balconies of Paquin's and strewed roses and geraniums on the soldiers.

Similar stories were told when the American liner New York arrived. Here are some of them:

Miss Margaret G. Konkle, a very pretty girl, landed without her trunk. She had paid $155 for passage on the Imperator. She managed to get away from Paris, but her trunk didn't follow her to Cherbourg. She came aboard with only a little handbag. The stewardesses made up for her lack of wardrobe. Miss Konkle didn't have to pay any duty yesterday, which was some consolation.

Francis De Vere, a stock broker, said many Americans still were in Paris by their own fault. They had been warned in time.

"Some Americans who do not read or speak French," said Mr. De Vere, "did not wake up to what was going on for two or three days. They were making plans to go further into Europe while the embroiling was growing worse. Friday night, July 31st, was an anxious night. We didn't know whether the New York would come in at Cherbourg or not."

Three weeks ago the broker was in Budapest.

"There is a Greek church on the outskirts of Budapest, which had always borne a good reputation," said he. "The police arrested the priest on some evidence and his church was found packed full of bombs. The priest was in league with the Servians.

PRESIDENT WOODROW WILSON.

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ENGLISH ARTILLERY IN ACTION NEAR PARIS.

CALLED CROWN PRINCE BOMB TUTOR

"Government detectives of Austria-Hungary say they learned that the Crown Prince of Servia conducted a regular school in which the curriculum was bomb making and bomb throwing.

"A conversation with a cabman shows the earnestness and tenseness in Budapest. I asked if he would take me pleasure riding. 'No, sir,' he replied, 'but if you wish to go to a railway station or a hotel I will take you.' "

Col. H. J. Gross, formerly in command of the First Light Infantry of Providence, R. I., and his wife left Paris Friday night, July 31st.

"I beat the war announcement by five hours," said Colonel Gross. "On Saturday morning, August 1st, I learned that Paris had closed all its banks. You could not buy a meal. I had only fifty-franc notes, but nobody would change them."

Colonel and Mrs. Gross tried successively to get home on the Imperator, La Provence and the Potsdam, finally managing to get on the New York. He had an upper berth in a four-bunk stateroom and a similar berth was found for Mrs. Gross in a stateroom with three other women.

July 14th—the anniversary of the fall of the Bastile—Colonel Gross witnessed a review of 50,000 French troops. "They were the finest disciplined body of men I ever saw," said he. "If they can fight as well as they can manœuver, they are all right."

The Rev. Harvey K. Heigner of Philadelphia, who arrived on the New York, had gone through Germany

after visiting Egypt and the Orient. He was two days in Berlin, leaving a few days before the trains stopped running and commercial traffic was paralyzed.

SAW BERLIN'S WAR FIRE KINDLED

"Berlin was very enthusiastic," said the clergyman. "On the Sunday night before the declaration of war twenty bands of music, at the head of many processions, paraded through the streets until 2 o'clock in the morning. In the processions were university professors, students, business men and even women. As they marched they sang 'Germany Over Everything.'

"Unter den Linden was strewn with handbills and bulletins, struck off by the newspapers. Placards were everywhere. Crowds marched and countermarched past the Russian Embassy, singing jeeringly. A squad of cavalry was sent from the palace to guard the embassy, and the police quelled the rioting.

"German soldiers in civilian life knew just where to go, at just what division to report. All they had to do was to get into their uniforms.

"Harvests were ripe all through Germany. Women predominated in the fields. The greatest surprise to me is the suddenness with which it all clapped down.

"In Dresden you could not get a meal until you showed money."

Dr. J. D. McGowan of Chicago, accompanied by his wife, had attended the Surgeons' Congress. He found conditions getting hot in London and decided to get out. He said he saw the Coldstream Guards march into the Tower of

London, drop their bearskins on the floor and get into their khaki. Every soldier he saw was in his fighting uniform.

"We could not cash our American Express Company checks," said the doctor, "and I understand Londoners charged 33 1-3 per cent for cashing American drafts. We didn't hear anything but war talk."

Dr. John R. Pennington of Chicago, a passenger on the New York, said 900 American surgeons were delayed in London. All have patients to whom they promised to return immediately.

Mrs. H. P. Martin of Red Bank, N. J., with her six-months-old babe, arrived at the American Relief Committee headquarters in London on August 20th after a trying trip. They started from Magdeburg, Germany, August 2d, with Mr. Martin, but he became separated from them as a crowd of foreigners was forced into a train. Mrs. Martin protested that she could not go alone, but the officers told her her husband was in another car.

Mrs. Martin, who was only nineteen years old and unused to traveling, reached Berlin August 4th, where she found her husband was not on the train. By degrees she made her way to Holland and reached London almost penniless.

CHAPTER XXXIII

FIRST SEA BATTLE OF THE WAR

English, Under Screen of Heavy Fog, Enter the Bight of Heligoland and Lure German Ships from Their Base—Two of the Kaiser's Cruisers Sunk, One Set Afire and Two Torpedo Boats Are Destroyed—Sir David Beatty, Who Married a Daughter of America's Merchant Prince, Marshall Field, in Command of the Victorious British Squadron—English Rescue German Sailors—German Official Report.

THE first important naval battle of the war was fought on a foggy morning, August 28, before daybreak, in the bight, or bay, of Heligoland, a large German island in the North Sea.

All the details of the battle were suppressed by the censor but a bulletin flashed on the screen at the London theatres, "The British fleet has assumed the aggressive," was enough to set the audience wild. This excitement soon spread to the streets and London, which had remained taciturn and stern under reports of repeated German and Austrian successes on land, indulged in an orgy of self-glorification over the long expected news of a victory of the fleet.

The Prussian tradition of the invincibility of its arms had its counterpart in the belief in England that the English fleet could not be conquered.

A censorship which had kept secret the movements of every vessel in the British navy had whetted the anxiety which it was intended to allay until the people were in a state of mind when the smallest glimmering of good news was magnified into the news of a "glorious victory." London was quite prepared therefore to read in the morning papers of August 29 such announcements as this:

"A glorious victory has fallen to the British fleet. With all the courage and fearless enterprise that distinguished our old officers, who many a time went into the very jaws of the enemy, Rear Admirals David Beatty, A. N. Christian, and Sir Arthur G. W. Moore have conducted a combined operation in the Bight of Heligoland, where the enemy had all his strength at his command. The triumph was complete."

It was announced officially that the British fleet had "sunk two German cruisers and two German torpedo boats off Heligoland." And it was added that a third German cruiser had been set afire and left sinking.

The newspaper version was that the German light cruisers Mainz and another of the Koeln class "and a third whose name was unknown had been destroyed, as well as two destroyers."

It appeared that a concerted attack had been planned—"just as our old seamen would have planned it," the exultant press continued, "to begin in dark and reach its decisive point at dawn. The attacking force was organic."

A less technical but more intelligible account was brought in by a wounded English sailor, landed at Harwich a day or so later. According to this sailor, the British fleet had bottled up the German fleet in the bight of Heligoland and the estuary of the Elbe and was standing by prepared to give the Germans battle when they should venture out.

"FISHING WITH LIVE BAIT"

The British took advantage of the fog on the night of August 27-28 to send one of the smaller craft in close to the Germans with the object of luring the latter out. The sailor described this maneuver as "fishing with live bait," the smaller craft being the bait. The sailorman said that he didn't find the experience agreeable, as he was under fire of the enemy all the time at short range and without the opportunity to "talk back."

However, the ruse was successful. The Germans followed the "bait" out of their hiding quarters until they came within range of the main British fleet, concealed by the fog. When it was too late to escape they found themselves under the fire of a superior force and, by all accounts, suffered severely.

The British fleet engaged consisted of the first battle cruiser squadron, the light cruiser squadrons and the destroyer and submarine flotillas.

The British fighting was distinguished by great accuracy of fire and the chief praise was awarded to Rear Admiral Sir David Beatty, the youngest flag officer afloat, a sailor in whom Americans felt a peculiar interest because of his American wife. He married in 1901 the daughter of the late Marshall Field of Chicago.

Rear Admiral Beatty commanded the first battle cruiser squadron, comprising the Lion (flagship), the Queen Mary, the Princess Royal and the New Zealand. He conducted the operation already described under the direction of Sir John Jellicoe, Commander-in-Chief. Jellicoe was a great favorite of the navy and of the English people. He was

one of the smallest men wearing the uniform and in his younger days was the champion lightweight of the navy, having "put it all over" all contenders in the fleet, without regard to rank.

Complete as was their victory the British appear to have suffered little loss of life or damage to their ships. All the latter emerged from the engagement afloat and "in good order." "Not a German cruiser excaped," said the English accounts, "and the destroyers fled wildly for shelter, having had two of their number sunk."

"It was a bold thing to do," continued the English stories, "to go into the Heligoland bight, but our officers had measured the risk and their enterprise was justified. Many times did our young officers in the old wars go close to the enemy's forts and cut off his coastwise shipping. The new race is evidently the equal of the old."

ENGLISH RESCUED GERMANS FROM SINKING SHIPS

The loss of life must remain a matter of conjecture until the seas shall give up its dead. The three German cruisers and two destroyers which were sunk would have had ordinarily complements amounting to 1,500 officers and men. The Liverpool brought into Harwich as prisoners nine German officers and eighty-one men who had been rescued by their conquerors from the sea. Many of these were wounded.

Herein is seen one of the few humane elements of warfare. The German official account of the battle, published four days later, paid this tribute to the English: "It must be admitted that the British without stopping to consider their own danger sent out lifeboats to save our men."

Here is the carefully guarded official report of the German imperial government on the same engagement. It should be read if only to show how differently the same set of facts may be made to appear from different angles:

GERMAN OFFICIAL REPORT

"During a fog a German torpedo boat was unexpectedly attacked on all sides by British torpedo boat destroyers and submarines. She defended herself with all her might, but sharp firing at close range reduced her moving capacity so that there was no possibility of her escaping from the enemy's fire.

"The vessel turned on her enemies determined to fight her passage out or engage them in battle to the end. When she was no longer able to move she was blown up to prevent her falling into the hands of the enemy. She sank quickly.

"The Chief of the Flotilla Captain Gorvette Wallis and Captain-Lieutenant Techler, died like heroes.

"It must be admitted that the British, without stopping to consider their own danger, sent out lifeboats to save our men.

"Summoned by the thunder of the guns the small cruiser Ariadne rushed to the assistance of the V 187. The guns meanwhile were silenced, but retreat was not in accordance with the fighting spirit of the German navy, and the Ariadne began to pursue the enemy, whose vessels, however, were hidden in the fog.

"Suddenly new gun firing was heard, and two English armored cruisers of the Lion class were bombarding the German vessel, to whose assistance the Ariadne was hurry-

GERMAN AIRSHIP WITH THE GERMAN FLEET

QUIET GAME BELOW DECK ON A BATTLESHIP

ing. A shell struck the Ariadne's boiler room and put half of her boilers out of action and reduced her speed to sixteen miles.

"The unequal battle raged for another half an hour. The ship's stern was ablaze, but her other guns continued to fire. The enemy meantime turned toward the west, but the brave Ariadne was doomed to destruction, and with three hurrahs for the Kaiser and singing 'Germany above all Above All' the ship was abandoned in perfect order and sank.

"The chief officer, the doctor, the officer of the watch, and about seventy members of the crew were among the fallen. Many were injured."

KAISER WILHELM DER GROSSE SUNK BY BRITISH CRUISER HIGHFLYER

Winston Spencer Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty, announced in the British House of Commons on August 27 that the North German Lloyd steamship Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse, recently converted into a cruiser, had been sunk by a British cruiser. Mr. Churchill said:

"The Admiralty has just received intelligence that the German armed merchant cruiser Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse, of 14,000 tons, and armed with ten 4-inch guns, has been sunk by H. M. S. Highflyer off the west coast of Africa.

"This is the vessel which has been interfering with traffic between this country and the cape and is one of the very few German armed auxiliary cruisers that succeeded in getting to sea. The survivors were landed before the vessel sank. The Highflyer had one killed and five wounded."

The Admiralty sent this despatch to the commander of the cruiser Highflyer this afternoon:

"Bravo! You have rendered a service not only to Great Britain but to the peaceful commerce of the world. The German officers and men appear to have carried out their duties with humanity and restraint and therefore are worthy of seamanlike consideration."

The destruction of the Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse caused an immediate drop of 25 per cent in Lloyds premiums on vessels for South Africa and South America.

At the time of her launching in 1897 the Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse was the largest ship in the world, and for a time also was the fastest, holding the north Atlantic records until the Hamburg-American's Deutschland and then the fleet Cunarders took them from her. She cost $4,000,000 to build. The Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse was 648 feet long, with a displacement of 20,000 tons. She was built under the requirements of the imperial navy for use as a cruiser in time of war and had eighteen watertight compartments.

It was on the deck of the Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse that Mayor Gaynor of New York was shot by James J. Gallagher as he was about to sail for Europe.

The Highflyer is a light cruiser of 5,600 tons displacement, lightly armored and carrying eleven 6-inch guns as her primary battery. She was completed in 1898.

THE BRITISH ACCOUNT

The British losses in the naval battle off Heligoland were two officers and twenty-seven men killed and forty wounded. The official statement said that of the 1,200 men composing

the crews of the German warships sunk in the action only 330 survived, and that five German vessels were known to have been sunk.

THE LAUREL'S BRAVE FIGHT

The most striking experience in the battle was that of the destroyer Laurel, which led the division of four destroyers sent ahead by the British fleet to lure the Germans out.

When the destroyer division, led by the Laurel, turned about to face the oncoming German destroyers it not only found itself unsupported by the cruisers, but saw coming out of the haze the light cruisers of the enemy.

Nothing daunted, the division opened fire. The Laurel, which was in an inside berth, had for some time to face the fire of one cruiser and two destroyers. The men engaged made light of the German marksmanship, declaring that they ought to have been sent speedily to the bottom. The first shell which hit the Laurel found its way to the engine room, killing four men. The second struck the forward gun, jamming the charge which was just about to be fired and killing three men.

LAUREL'S COMMANDER WOUNDED

The third shell to strike her wounded Commander Frank Rose seriously in the left leg, but though urged by his men to go below, he shifted his weight onto the other leg and continued to issue his orders as though nothing had happened.

All this time the Laurel was making it uncomfortable for the two destroyers with which she was engaged, one of which

shortly afterward went to the bottom, and giving as good as she was getting from the cruiser as well.

A piece of the fourth shell struck the commander on the sound leg and brought him down on the bridge, but he still declined to give way, though his signal man insisted on tearing off his trousers to prevent his wounds from being poisoned. He continued to fight his ship until he lost consciousness, just after he had learned that they had managed to extract the charge from the damaged gun.

As he lay unconscious on the bridge one of the petty officers fastened tenderly a lifebelt round him, for by this time only three rounds of ammunition remained, and though the British cruisers had appeared on the scene it appeared impossible that the Laurel could live much longer in the fire to which she was exposed.

A final shell struck her amidships, enveloping her in a dense cloud of dust and smoke, and all on board were certain that she was going to the bottom. That last shell, however, was to prove her salvation, for a dense cloud hung to her as she lay helpless on the water, and though it was split in all directions by the enemy's projectiles, not one succeeded in finding her. In the heart of it there was not the slightest flurry, though even the satisfaction of fighting had been taken from them.

"Good-bye, old man," said a bluejacket, bleeding to death on the forecastle, to his mate, stretched on the deck beside him.

"My time is up, too," replied the other, calmly, reaching out a hand to him, and with that handclasp they died.

The British destroyers exposed themselves to considerable risk in endeavoring to save as many as possible of the

drowning German sailors. British officers present vouch for the fact that German officers were observed firing with pistols at their own men in the water and that several were shot before their eyes.

Under these peculiar circumstances one destroyer was actually picking up the wounded with her boats when she was driven off by the approach of another German cruiser and had to leave two of her boats containing one officer and nine men behind. It was feared that these had been made prisoners, but a submarine arrived and brought the British party home.

As it was not possible to accommodate the thirty Germans in the submarine they were allowed to return to Germany in a boat under the charge of a German lieutenant who was not wounded. The complements of the five German vessels known to have been sunk aggregated about 1,200 officers and men, all of whom, with the exception of these thirty and about 300 wounded and unwounded prisoners, perished. Besides, there was a loss which must have been severe on board the German torpedo boats and the other cruisers which did not sink during action.

The total British casualties amounted to sixty-nine killed and wounded, among whom, however, must be included in the killed two officers of exceptional merit, Lieut. Commander Nigel K. W. Barttelot and Lieut. Eric W. P. Westacott.

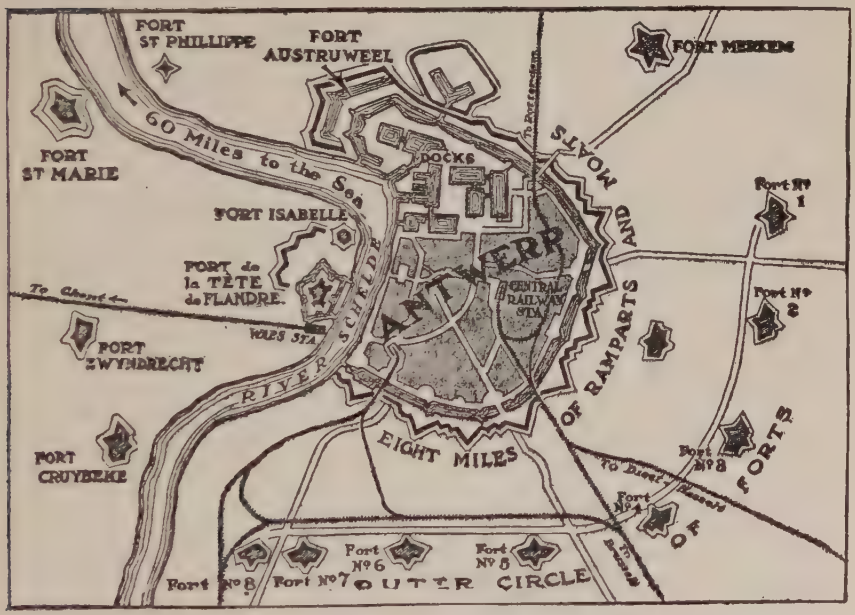
GRAND FIGHT OF DESTROYERS

The destroyers Liberty and Laertes fought a grand fight. A shell brought down the mast of the Liberty. The Laertes

was hit amidships, a hole was shot through her funnel, her forward guns were damaged, and she also received a shell in the dynamo room and a shot aft, which wrecked her cabin.

It was hot work, but at that moment the British light cruisers and battle cruisers appeared. It was the moment for which they had been waiting, and their execution was deadly. The first shot from one of the British battle cruisers sank a German cruiser which had been battering a destroyer.

The German fleet then turned and fled in the direction of Cuxhaven.



DOUBLE LINE OF FORTS FOR THE DEFENCE OF ANTWERP

AVIATORS READY TO ATTACK GERMAN FORT.

Photograph, Underwood and Underwood

CHAPTER XXXIV

BOMB ATTACK BY A ZEPPELIN

Night of Horror In Belgian Capital When a Monster Airship Dropped Bombs On a Sleeping City—Story of An Eyewitness Who Heard and Saw the Great German Airship—How An Aeroplane Directed Artillery Where To Place Shells—Other Thrilling Experiences.

NIGHT OF HORROR AT ANTWERP

A CORRESPONDENT who was in Antwerp, Belgium, the night that a German dirigible passed over the city dropping explosive bombs as it went, sent the following thrilling description of an incident unique in war:

"At 1 o'clock this morning death came to Antwerp out of the air. In my room in the Hotel St. Antoine, on an upper floor overlooking the General Staff headquarters, I had just extinguished the light when a curious humming in the air, like the sound of a million bumblebees, drew me to the window. A thousand feet above me hovered an indistinct mass, which slowly resolved itself into the appearance of a gigantic black cigar, silhouetted against the purple sky. It was a German dirigible Zeppelin, and sounded, when closer, like an automobile with the muffler open.

"As I looked, something resembling a falling star curved across the sky, and, an instant later, there came a rending,

shattering crash that shook the hotel to its foundations.

"Only then did I realize that death was being rained upon the sleeping city from the sky. The first projectile completely demolished a building two hundred yards from my window. Thirty seconds later there came another crash, and another and yet another, until ten in all had happened. Accompanied by four Cabinet Ministers and five heads of legations, all in our pajamas, I ascended to the hotel roof.

"Belgian high angle and machine guns now were stabbing the darkness with spurts of flame, and the rattle of musketry was deafening, but they were unable to hit the Zeppelin, which disappeared in the upper darkness. The destruction caused by the projectiles was incredible, in both extent and horror.

Capt. Williams of the United States Coast Artillery, who was here with money supplies from the cruiser Tennessee, reported that the projectiles used were some form of shrapnel, with a terrible new explosive and fired from a gun. One shell struck in the middle of the public weighing square. A policeman in the square was blown to pieces and six persons sleeping in adjacent houses were killed in their beds. Every building facing the square was partially or completely demolished and every house within a radius of a block in every direction was riddled like a sieve.

"Another shell burst on the roof of a physician's house, in the Rue Escrimes, killing two maids who were asleep upstairs. One shell fell in a garden in the Rue Dubarry, wounding terribly a man and his wife. Another shell fell in the barracks in the Rue Falcon, killing one and wounding two inmates. Fortunately the regiment stationed there had just left.

"A child was mangled in a fashionable residence in the Rue de la Justice. A policeman in the public square had both his legs blown off. The quarter-inch thick steel gates of the Rue Lausanne were perforated like cardboard.

"The authorities believed that a deliberate attempt was made to kill the royal family, the General Staff and the Cabinet, and to destroy the hospitals, banks and barracks.

"The accuracy with which the bombs were dropped suggested that the Germans had confederates displaying signals throughout the city. In all, ten were killed, including six women, and probably thirty were wounded.

"The authorities mounted searchlights and high angle guns everywhere."

GOOD-BY! MR. FLYING MAN

Many stories were told of the uncomplaining heroism of the troops engaged about Mons. A number of the British wounded were brought across the border to Rouen. They belonged to divisions that had borne the brunt of the German attack. They had had to take the field immediately after they arrived at Mons. In fact, they only arrived just in time to stem the German onrush. For days they had been travelling and marching and they needed repose. In spite of this they behaved like fresh troops and held their ground magnificently, winning warm praise from the French commander.

"On the whole it seemed they suffered far less than the French. A good many of them were merely broken down with the hard marching.

FORTIFIED CITY OF NAMUR, BELGIUM, FROM THE RIVER

RED CROSS CAMP WITH THE SERVIAN ARMY

"One man said:

" 'We marched into Mons on Sunday at 10 o'clock and were just going to be billeted when we were ordered to fall in again and get a move on. We wanted to rest. We had been marching since 4 o'clock and hadn't had our boots off since we left home. I haven't had mine off yet.

" 'It had been blazing hot and the ninety-six pound loads on our backs made us wish for cloudy old England.

" 'Still we were wanted. We knew that or they wouldn't have sent for us, so we jumped off again to these trenches. The German artillery over a range two or three miles off soon opened on us. Fortunately most of the shells burst behind us and did no harm. Some burst backward and got among us. They kept it up as hard as ever when it was dark.

" 'In the daytime they had aeroplanes to tell them where to drop the shells. They were flying about all the time. One came a bit too near. Our gunners a long way behind waited and let him come. Two thousand feet up, he was, I dare say. All of a sudden the gunners let fly. We could see the thing stagger and then good-by, Mr. Flying Man! He dropped like a stone, all crumpled up.' "

AEROPLANE GUIDED FIGHTERS

The London Times of August 27 printed a despatch from Paris describing the part an aeroplane played in the artillery battle about Mons. This machine, a biplane, the correspondent said, capable of cutting down its speed to a low rate, hovered at a safe height over the Franco-British artillery position, and actually directed the fire of the German gunners.

Its observer watched the effect of the shells fired by the Germans. Then, by means of a large disk which was swung at the end of a line and could be raised and lowered at will, he signalled as need be in code: "Higher—lower—right—left" and thus guided the gunners (who naturally could not see their mark or the effect of their fire) until they were making hits at almost every shot and creating great havoc.

The second story described the manner in which bombs are fired from the Zeppelin dirigibles by an ingenious arrangement which makes the airship itself comparatively safe from harm and at the same time renders the aim of its bombman much more accurate.

The refugee said that the immense airship came to a stop —or as near a stop as possible—above the city or fortification it wished to attack, at a height out of range of either artillery or rifle fire.

Then, by means of a steel wire rope 2,000 or 3,000 feet long it lowered from one end a small wire cage, just large enough to contain one man and a supply of bombs. This cage was so fortified with steel netting that rifle fire against it was ineffective. At the same time it was so tiny a mark that artillery could not be pointed with sufficient accuracy to hit it.

And if it should happen to be struck, of course, the airship proper would be safe, only one man would be lost, and besides, when he fell, his supply of bombs (unless they were exploded in midair by the shot) would fall with him.

The Zeppelin, presumably equipped with at least two cages and cables, might at once lower another bombfirer.

PREFERRED TO FIGHT BAREFOOT

A trainload of wounded Senegalese riflemen returned from the front to Paris, August 27, and the following story was told by one of the wounded Africans of the capture of a machine gun by eighteen.

The Senegalese did not appear to mind their wounds and many of them were contentedly smoking long porcelain German pipes on their arrival. They had taken the pipes from the Germans. The one thing the Senegalese complained of was being compelled to wear shoes while fighting. Before going into action at Charleroi they are said to have thrown away their shoes. They came back wearing German shoes, so that they would not be punished for losing a part of their equipment.

A HERO UP A TELEGRAPH POLE

Here is a story of a heroic Belgian up a telegraph pole told by the correspondent of the London Chronicle:

At 5 o'clock the town of Ostend was aroused by the sound of heavy firing, coming from the direction of Leffinnhe, about four miles to the southwest, where there was a sharp fight when a body of Belgian gendarmerie, numbering 150, bravely attacked a superior Uhlan force which had approached on the Bruges Road.

The two opposing forces came into contact at daybreak. The Uhlans, who had passed the night in a wood, had come out to resume their march. Some minutes later they came under a sharp fire, directed upon them from the concealed force. The Uhlan cavalry was preceded by a body of cyclist

scouts, and the latter were the first victims of the Belgian rifle fire.

Thrown temporarily into confusion by well-directed volleys, the Uhlans took to the shelter of the woods and returned the fire of the Belgians. The latter, believing the Uhlan retirement heralded a rout, left their concealment and started in pursuit. They at once came under the fire of the dismounted Uhlans, who were assisted by machine guns, which they had mounted on automobiles.

In this second phase of the fight the Belgians had several of their number killed and wounded. They, however, fell back in tolerably good order, and for about an hour shots were exchanged from behind cover. Four machine guns were dispatched to the aid of the defenders of Ostend, and their firing could be distinctly heard in the freshly awakened city.

Some difficulty was experienced by the Belgians in discovering the exact whereabouts of the enemy, but a gendarme who climbed a telegraph post was able to obtain a clear view of the enemy, and with a flag directed his comrades' fire. He was however, speedily discovered by the Germans, who fired several volleys at him. Nevertheless, he remained in his dangerous position until German bullets in his leg and arm brought him down.

DEATH RATHER THAN SURRENDER

An official statement issued by the French government contained this story of desperate bravery of the siege of Liege:

Fort Chaudefontaine has been the scene of an act of

heroism which affirms once more the brilliant valor of the Belgian Army. The fort, which commands the railroad to Aix-la-Chapelle, by Verviers and the tunnel to Chaudefontaine, was subjected to a continual and extremely violent bombardment.

When it was reduced to a mere heap of ruins and Major Nameche, the commanding officer, judged that further resistance was impossible, he blocked up the tunnel by running several locomotives into each other, and set fire to the fuses leading to the mines surrounding the forts.

His mission then accomplished, Major Nameche, determined that the German flag should not fly even over the ruins of his fort, blew up the powder magazine and perished.

HOTEL MAN SHOT AS SPY

A New York hotel man had an experience in Paris showing how closely the French kept watch for spies. A bellboy in the hotel where the New York man was staying reported to the gendarmes that he had seen the manager of the hotel sitting in a little house, on the roof, with telephone receivers to his ears. The gendarmes invaded the hotel and seized the manager.

On the roof they found a complete wireless receiving apparatus and more than 250 sheets of German script recording messages sent out from the Eiffel Tower station. The manager was shot as a spy.

CHAPTER XXXV

THE DEFENCE OF LIEGE

The Defence of Belgium—The Liege Forts—The Siege of Liege—Heavy Losses on Both Sides—The Belgian Commander—Honor to the Brave—Reprisals for the Delay.

WHEN Kaiser Wilhelm decided to invade France he chose the route through Belgium, up the valley of the River Meuse, as the shortest road to Paris.

True, Belgium was neutral territory and no party to the Kaiser's quarrel with France or England. But, as the Imperial Chancellor, Bethmann-Hollweg, pointed out, Germany was willing to reimburse Belgium for any inconvenience and loss she might sustain. If she would open her gates and stand aside while the Germans rushed through on their way to the French frontier she would have ample indemnity, in cash or otherwise. Else; if she opposed the march of the Kaiser's armies, it was intimated that she must expect the harsh treatment of an enemy.

There is no reason to doubt that the Kaiser counted on the speedy acquiescence of Belgium in his demands. In the German chancellery it does not seem to have been considered possible that the temerity of little Belgium would rise to the height of opposing the will of mighty Germany. The warlords of Berlin evidently counted on a swift and easy passage through a friendly or at least not hostile territory and there-

STREET IN LIEGE, BELGIUM

GRAND MONUMENT IN LIEGE, BELGIUM

BELGIANS IN GUN-PIT AT LIEGE

after a swift descent upon Paris, on the one hand and the coast of the English channel on the other, within easy striking distance of England, on the other.

This should be accomplished, it was reckoned, in time for the Germans to turn and meet the tide of Russian invaders on their Eastern frontier, slow of mobilization and tardily transported by the single tracked railroads of the Czar's domain.

The key to this plan was, of course, the acquiescence of Belgium.

But Belgium did not acquiesce in the Kaiser's demands. On the contrary the smaller country put up a defence which stayed the Kaiser's progress, cost him thousands of men, millions of treasure and undoubtedly resulted in a revision of the campaign plans so confidently made in Berlin.

THE DEFENCE OF BELGIUM

The defence of Belgium by the Belgians, before the French or English allies had time to come to their rescue is a story of desperate heroism which stands out in all the annals of war. It begins virtually with the siege of the town of Liege. The Germans crossed the border at Stavelot, Francochamps and Verviers and in the first week of the war concentrated before Liege, at the junction of the Meuse and the Ourthe.

Both are navigable rivers and at this point railroads center which lead to all parts of the kingdom and to the coast city of Antwerp. The town itself (it had 171,000 population in 1910) was built on level ground in the valleys of the river, surrounded by mountains, or considerable hills, and on

the summits of these were built the fortifications which commanded all the approaches by land or water.

Underneath the mountain tops are rich mines of coal and iron and this natural wealth, together with the facilities for transportation made Liege a center of manufacturing, particularly of the iron and steel industries. It has been called the "Pittsburgh of Belgium" and undoubtedly deserved that appellation, in addition to being the seat of many manufactures such as Pittsburgh does not possess. There were made most of the firearms for which Belgium is famous and there were textile industries as in all the Belgian cities.

Readers of Sir Walter Scott's novels will recall the description in "Quentin Durward" of the industrious and thrifty Ligeois and their stubborn devotion to their rights. More than once during the last four hundred years the city had been under siege and its walls invaded by the enemy.

THE LIEGE FORTS

But the modern fortifications, those which confronted the German forces when they poured down the valley of the Meuse, were of very recent construction. General Brialmont, called by some the foremost military engineer of modern times, was placed in charge of the work, when in 1888 the Beligans decided to fortify Liege and Namur so as to make them as far as might be impregnable. At Liege, General Brialmont built twelve forts, six on either bank of the Meuse river and situated at a distance of from four to six miles apart.

The forts are Barchon, Evegnee, Fleron, Chaudfontaine, Embourg and Boncelles, on the right bank of the Meuse, be-

ginning at the north and following an eastern curve, and Pontisse, Liers, Lantin, Loncin, Hollogne and Flemaille on the left bank and following a western curve. These forts thus virtually surrounded the city and bore a close resemblance to the formidable defences of Bucharest.

As the Germans advanced toward Liege from the east, the people were urged by the burgomaster to move to the western side of the river. When this had been done the Belgians blew up the bridges.

The Germans continued to come on, in spite of the vigorous opposition from the forts on the east side of the river. The population were panic stricken and as many as could, rushed to the railway station and entrained for Brussels and Ostend. The burgomaster beseeched General Leman, who was in command of the defences, to surrender. The General refused to do so and gave fresh orders to the forts to redouble their vigilance.

THE SIEGE OF LIEGE

Then a messenger came from the German camp bearing a white flag of truce. He demanded that the city surrender under threat of a still heavier bombardment.

Receiving an instant refusal, the messenger returned to his principal and within a short time the siege was renewed, as threatened, upon a heavier scale than before.

The Germans fought with a bravery which even their enemies do not hesitate to praise. They approached the forts and came within range of the terribly effective guns of the Ligeois drawn up in solid formation. In consequence they were mowed down, in companies—in battalions—in regiments. Such recklessness on the part of a sane commander

is to be explained only on the theory that he had endless reserves at his disposal and was bent to win at whatever cost.

On both counts, this appears to have been the truth. How many men were brought to bear in the siege of Liege and how many men were lost are questions which may never be answered. The accounts of opposing sides conflict. The French official report was that the Germans had lost 5,000 men in one day. It was said also that the German force numbered, from first to last, fully 800,000 men. Both of these figures were denied in Berlin but no others were offered in their place.

HEAVY LOSSES ON BOTH SIDES

On the Belgian side the force was greatly smaller and the number killed correspondingly less. Fighting under cover of forts scientifically constructed they enjoyed an immunity which offset the superior numbers of the Germans. Their guns were mounted in concrete pits and covered by domes coated with nickel steel, from which the missiles of the German guns rebounded harmless. Most of the Belgian losses were incurred in sallies made by their cavalry.

According to the official report made by the War Office at Paris, twenty-four German guns were captured and one general was made prisoner. The Belgian defenders numbered 40,000.

The Belgian fire was accurate and well placed, it was said and in proof it was cited that two heavy siege guns belonging to the Germans were destroyed.

The three German army corps engaged in the siege were commanded by Generals von Pritzelwitz, von Einem and von

Emmich, who was also in command of the Army of the Meuse. He was reported killed during the engagement and the report gained circulation that he had committed suicide out of chagrin at his failure to enter Liege without opposition. This report was denied at Berlin.

THE BELGIAN COMMANDER

The commandant of the Belgian forces was General Leman. His defence of Liege was noble but tragic. During the early attack his legs were crushed by the fall of a piece of concrete. Undaunted, he continued to direct his campaign, visiting the forts in an automobile ambulance.

The commander of one of the forts, at the moment when the bombardment was heaviest, went mad and began shooting his own men. He was disarmed and bound. The cupola of one of the forts was destroyed by a bomb from a Zeppelin. Fort Chaudfontaine was blown into oblivion by a German shell which dropped into the magazine.

Finally General Leman decided to make his last stand in Fort Loncin. When the end became inevitable he destroyed the last gun and burned up the plans, maps, papers and food supplies. He was about to order all the men to the trenches when a shell buried him beneath a pile of debris. He was unconscious when the fort surrendered.

The following incident was told to the reporter of a Dutch newspaper by a German officer:

"When the first dust and fumes passed away we stormed the fort across ground liberally strewn with the bodies of the Belgian defenders. All the men in the forts were wounded. Most were unconscious. A corporal with one arm shattered valiantly tried to drive us back by firing his rifle.

HONORS TO THE BRAVE

"Buried beneath the debris and pinned down by a massive beam was General Leman. 'Le General, il est mort,' (the General is dead) said an aide-de-camp gently. With the utmost care, to show our respect for the man who had resisted us so valiantly and stubbornly, our infantry released the General's wounded form and carried him away. He recovered consciousness and said:

" 'It is as it is. The men fought valiantly. Put it in your despatches that I was unconscious.'

"We brought him to our commander, General von Emmich, and the two generals saluted. We tried to speak words of comfort but he was silent. He is known as the 'Silent General.' Extending his hand, our General said:

" 'General, you have gallantly and nobly held your forts.' General Leman replied:

" 'I thank you; our troops have lived up to their reputations.' With a smile he added: 'War is not like maneuvers.'

"This was a reference to the fact that General von Emmich was recently with General Leman at the Belgian maneuvers.

"Then, unbuckling his sword, General Leman tendered it to General von Emmich.

" 'No,' replied the German commander with a bow, 'keep your sword. To have crossed swords with you is an honor.'

"And the fire in General Leman's eye was dimmed by a tear."

The fiercest fighting was done in the day time. The German infantry would advance under cover of a heavy artillery fire. The Belgian defenders would wait until the enemy was

within close range when they would send in a hail of bullets from rifles and machine guns. After a short resistance the Germans would retire leaving their dead in heaps. This maneuver was repeated day after day.

REPRISALS FOR THE DELAY

Failing to reduce the forts around Liege, though they affected an entrance to the city, where, according to French and Belgian report, they committed horrible atrocities, the Germans "sidestepped" that locality and continued on their way toward the French territory by another route. Their disappointment was manifested by the imposition of a war levy of $10,000,000 on the city.

By the time the Germans had passed Liege and, by slow degrees gained the French frontier, the French forces were mobilized and the British, having landed on the French coast, went to the rescue of the Belgians. Their united efforts were sufficient materially to delay the German advance; insomuch that, as compared with the War of 1870, in which the Prussians were at the gates of Paris within a month after they passed the Alsatian frontier, the last day, first month of the War of 1914 found them still pounding at the doors of France, barely within a hundred miles of Paris.

This delay, which disconcerted all the plans of the Kaiser, was largely due to the heroic defence of Liege.

CHAPTER XXXVI

THRILLING WAR EXPERIENCES IN THE FIELD, IN THE CLOUDS AND ON THE SEA

Belgian Officer Creates Havoc Among German Troops with His Armored Automobile—His Narrow Escape from Capture—Routing the Enemy—Sinking of the Koenigin Luise—British Cruiser Amphion Sunk by a Mine in the North Sea—German Submarine Destroyed by British—Austrians Walk Into Russian Trap—Gallantry of French Turcos—The Chase of the Goeben and Breslau—How Leaders Went To Their Deaths—Fights In the Clouds—Experiences of Antwerp As Bombs Fall On City—Escape of the Kronprinzessin Cecilie—Mauretania Dodges German Battleship.

THE war of the nations was hardly under way when the reports of thrilling experiences on the battlefield, in the clouds and on the sea reached this country. Belgium was the theatre in which many of these dramatic incidents were staged but they were not confined to King Albert's domains. Nor were these experiences the lot of only the members of one nation. Even Americans had them.

An automobile played a leading rôle in the experiences of Lieutenant Henkart of the Belgian army. He developed the art of hunting for German uhlans with an armorplated

motor car, carrying a mitrailleuse, or machine gun, to a fine point. Lieutenant Henkart brought down scores of uhlans and other German soldiers who have crossed his path. His principal work was reconnoitering the enemy's position. He had several narrow escapes from capture, and the body of his car showed hundreds of bullet marks which the armor plating had stopped.

Lieutenant Henkart formerly was an officer in the Belgian Grenadiers, but had retired and was living the quiet existence of a country gentleman when the war broke out. He at once volunteered and was detailed to the General Staff.

This is the report made of his exploits:

On August 15 he started from the Belgian headquarters at Louvain in the direction of Durbuy. He discovered several defensive positions of the Germans on the rivers Ambleve and Ourthe and succeeded in rescuing two French horsemen and killing five uhlans. He visited the battlefield of Haelen on August 16, the scene of the one hot and severe fight of the campaign till then and found defensive positions at Curange-Kermpt and Herck-la-ville.

On August 17 Lieutenant Henkart went to Jauche, near Jodoigne, where he heard of the presence of twelve German cavalrymen. He followed up the scent but was caught in a trap and had considerable difficulty extricating himself.

Eventually he killed seven uhlans and reconnoitered the German entrenchments. On August 18 he reconnoitered the German position at Perwez in Brabant. He met a party of German military cyclists and cavalry and killed twelve of them.

On the following day he returned to Jodoigne, where the presence of two German officers was signalled. The lieu-

tenant went in search of them but was again caught in a trap and had to run the gauntlet of a shower of bullets fired from houses at Jodoigne. His motorcar was scarred with bullets.

The next day he went to Westerloo. This was the red letter day of his expedition. It almost ended in a fatality for the reconnoitering party, who found themselves suddenly confronted by two companies of cyclists and one squadron of cavalry.

They numbered altogether about 450 men. It was too late to retreat, but fortunately the Germans did not realize the position and thought they faced an important Belgian force. The little mitrailleuse kept up its fire for an hour and a half, and as a result the Germans left twenty-five killed and a large number of wounded on the field before retiring.

The next day Lieutenant Henkart went out to reconnoiter the German forces, which were moving toward Antwerp. At Hofstade, near Malines, he met a party of thirty-four uhlans and killed twenty-one. Three other Germans were drowned and seven wounded, and of the latter five were brought back to Antwerp, where Lieutenant Henkart was warmly received.

KOENIGIN LUISE GOES TO THE BOTTOM

The destroyer Lance of the British navy, was the hero of the first naval engagement of the war. Firing only four shots, she sank the Hamburg-American liner Koenigin Luise, which had been fitted out as a mine ship and which was caught in the act of laying mines sixty miles from Harwich. The first shot destroyed the bridge of the Luise, and the others tore away her stern. The Luise sank in six minutes. The

Lance rescued twenty-eight of the German crew, several of whom had been wounded. This was early in August, just before the British cruiser Amphion was sunk by a mine in the North Sea. The official report of the sinking of the Amphion follows:

"A trawler informed the vessel's officers that she had seen a suspicious ship throwing things overboard. Shortly afterward the German minelayer Koenigin Luise was sighted steering east. Four destroyers gave chase and in about an hour's time she was rounded up and sunk.

"After picking up the survivors of the German ship, the plan of search was carried out without incident until 3.30 in the morning. At that hour, as the Amphion on her return course was near the scene of the operations of the Koenigin Luise, her course was altered to avoid the danger zone. This was successful until 6.30 A. M., at which hour the Amphion struck a mine.

"A sheet of flame instantly engulfed the bridge. The Captain was rendered insensible, and he fell to the fore and aft bridge. As soon as the Captain recovered consciousness, he rang the engineroom to stop the engines, which were still going at revolutions for 20 knots. As all the forward part of the Amphion was on fire, it was found impossible to reach the bridge or flood the fore magazine.

"The ship's back appeared to be broken and she was already settling down by the bows. All efforts, therefore, were directed to placing the wounded in places of safety in case of an explosion, and in getting the cruiser in tow by the stern.

"By the time the destroyers had closed in, it was clearly time to abandon the ship. The men fell in for this purpose

with the same composure that had marked their behavior throughout. All was done without hurry or confusion, and twenty minutes after the cruiser struck the mine, the men, the officers and lastly the Captain, had left the ship.

"Three minutes after the Captain had left another explosion occurred. This enveloped and blew up the entire fore part of the vessel. The effect of this showed the Amphion must have struck a second mine, which exploded the fore magazine. Debris falling from a great height struck the rescue boats and the destroyers, and one of the Amphion's shells burst on the deck of one of the destroyers, killing two Englishmen and one German prisoner.

"Fifteen minutes later the Amphion sunk."

GERMAN SUBMARINE DESTROYED

The North Sea was the scene of another thrilling incident not many days later, when the German submarine U-15 was lost. The British cruiser squadron became aware of the approach of the submarine flotilla which was submerged, only the periscopes showing above the surface of the water.

The British cruiser Birmingham, steaming at full speed, fired the first shot. This shot was carefully aimed, not at the submerged body of a submarine, but at the thin line of the periscope.

The gunnery was accurate and shattered the periscope. Thereupon the submarine, now a blinded thing, rushed along under water in imminent danger of self-destruction from collision with the cruisers above.

The sightless submarine was then forced to come to the surface, whereupon the Birmingham's gunner fired the sec-

ond shot of the fight. This shot struck at the base of the conning tower, ripping the whole of the upper structure clean and the U-15 sank like a stone.

RUSSIANS TRAP AUSTRIANS

Russian Cossacks trapped two picked Austrian cavalry regiments about this time near Lemberg, an important city in Galicia. The Governor of Lublin prepared the trap that sent the Austrians to their deaths.

Skirting the dense forest which lies between this section of Lublin and the Galician border, the Governor prepared a fiendish ambuscade for the Austrians. Heavy rains had caused an overflow of the river Wieprz, on which Bilgoray stands, and in consequence the whole countryside on the other side of the highway that marks the edge of the forest had been converted into a dense swamp.

Toward evening the Austrians, returning from their predatory expedition, had to pass this spot, where the Lublin Governor had secreted his battery and Cossacks in the forest. The Austrian advance guard trotted past the scene of the ambush. Only a few peasants were to be seen, toiling late in the fields, by order of the Governor.

As the main body of the Austrians reached the place where the Cossacks were waiting they suddenly found themselves beset by a ferocious onslaught. The Cossacks dashed among them, and the Austrian men and horses dashed off into what seemed the open way—the fields facing the forest, where they had seen the peasants at work.

By hundreds they leaped into the fatal marshes, and there, while their horses struggled as the soft ground engulfed

them, the hidden battery, the Cossacks having withdrawn, opened fire upon them. Not an Austrian horse or man survived.

CHARGE OF THE FRENCH TURCOS

The experiences of the French Turcos, the native African troops, early in the war are worthy of note. They made many gallant charges. While the Germans were bombarding Charleroi the French made a sortie and were driven back by superior numbers. The bombardment continued until the Turcos, fretting under further inaction, debouched from the town and charged up to the German guns, bayonetting the gunners. Their loss in this wild charge under terrific artillery fire is said to have exceeded that of the Light Brigade at Balaclava.

A RUNNING SEA FIGHT

Wireless Operator Marsden, of the British cruiser Gloucester, which pursued the German cruisers Goeben and Breslau among the Ionian Islands, in writing an account of the chase to his mother said:

"The chase lasted four days and nights, during which our gunner indulged in some long range shots at the Breslau. After missing the first shot at 11,000 yards, he spat on the second shell for luck and it went true, carrying away half of the Breslau's funnel. The gunner repeated the operation on the third shot, which cleared the Breslau's quarterdeck and put her after gun out of action. The cruiser fired thirty shots

in return. Two of them smashed boats on the davits on the Gloucester's upper deck. The British ship narrowly escaped destruction from a torpedo fired by the Goeben."

HOW LEADERS WENT TO THEIR DEATHS

The common soldiers, who showed great bravery, had a fine example in their leaders. Gen. Otto von Emmich, in command of the German troops which assaulted Liege, laid down his life early in the struggle. He fell mortally wounded while leading a charge on one of the forts. He was sixty-six years old. He joined the army as a volunteer in 1866 and was promoted two years later to a lieutenancy. He took part in the Franco-Prussian war in 1870-71. Afterward he was promoted through all the grades until he became Major General in 1901. When he was appointed to the command of the Tenth Army Corps he was made a general.

Lieutenant General Prince Frederick of Saxe-Meiningen, one of the most important officers in the German army, was killed by a shell before Namur late in August. Prince Frederick of Saxe-Meningen was born in 1861. He was the third son of George, the late reigning Duke of Saxe-Meiningen. He married in 1889 Adelaide, Princess of Lippe, and had six children.

Prince Ernest of Saxe-Meiningen was seriously wounded a few days later. Prince Ernest was the second son of Prince Frederick of Saxe-Meiningen, who was killed at Namur. He was in his nineteenth year and a lieutenant in the Sixth Thuringian Infantry Regiment. An elder brother, Prince George, was a lieutenant in the same regiment. They were cousins of the reigning Duke of Saxe-Meiningen.

Prince Frederick William of Lippe died in the fighting before Liege in a dramatic manner. The Prince's infantry regiment was surrounded by the Belgians under the walls of Liege, and he was struck by two bullets while standing among his men. The bullets took effect in his neck and chest, and he died immediately.

EXPERIENCES IN THE CLOUDS

The activities of aeroplanes were productive of many thrilling incidents. Early in the war Roland Garros, a French aviator, sacrificed his own life when he dashed his airship against a German military dirigible that had crossed the border near Nancy. The dirigible contained twenty-five men, and all were said to have been dashed to death. German and French aviators met in the air during the engagement at Longwy and the Frenchman shot the German, who fell 300 feet and was killed.

An eyewitness of an exciting aeroplane chase near Namur told the following:

"A German monoplane which for three days has persistently reconnoitered the positions of the Belgians was observed just before sunset hovering over an important fortified place on the banks of the River Meuse.

"Two Belgian biplanes put upward immediately and gave chase to the enemy's aerial scout. It was some time before the Kaiser's aviator discovered that he was being pursued. When he did he turned about and flew at full speed toward Huy and Liege.

"One of the Belgian airmen, by strategic manoeuvring managed to get high above the German. He was still above

him and close upon him when darkness fell, leaving the result of the pursuit, so far as I could tell, undecided."

Belgian military aviators who were active in the fighting around Liege had this to say of an experience on August 6:

"On Thursday morning we rose at 7 o'clock to a height from which we could see the German artillery, backed by constantly increasing forces of infantry, firing at the Belgian forts. Because of the high wind we could not get up above the clouds and our machine made an attractive target for the invaders, who immediately opened fire upon us as we approached their position.

"We wheeled about and started back for our own territory, when to our dismay the outer forts of Liege—not knowing who we were—also let go their shots at us.

"We went through a terrible ordeal. Shrapnel burst to the right and left of us and under us. The wings were pierced slightly several times. The concussion of the shells, bursting in the air, caused the plane to rock like a lifeboat in a heavy sea. We managed to alight safely in Waremme, in our own country."

BOMBS TERRORIZE ANTWERP

Near the end of August, while the Germans were on their onward march in Belgium, they terrorized Antwerp by raining bombs on the city from a dirigible Zeppelin. On the night of August 25 the great ship of the air appeared over the city and the sleeping inhabitants were aroused in the dead of night by rending, shattering crashes. Several buildings were demolished and ten persons were killed. Belgian high angle and machine guns spit their wrath at the Zeppelin but

it sailed away unscathed leaving death and destruction in its wake.

Some new form of explosive was used in the bombs dropped from the Zeppelin. To show the destructive powers of the bombs the following examples may be used. One shell burst in the center of a small park killing a policeman and several persons sleeping on nearby benches. Several children were seriously injured in other bomb explosions and one was killed. Each bomb carried death with it.

TREASURE SHIP ESCAPES CAPTURE

Passengers on several of the big ocean liners also had thrilling experiences. The most dramatic of the escapes on the sea was that of the Kronprinzessin Cecilie. Carrying $13,000,000 in gold the North German Lloyd liner dashed into Bar Harbor, Maine, on August 4, after a four-day run across the Atlantic, saving the treasure and a big crowd of passengers from the clutches of British and French warships. The liner left New York with the treasure consigned to foreign bankers in her hold and had several narrow escapes from capture. The boat ran at top speed in making the dash back to a neutral port and her captain drove her engines at full speed through a dense fog in order to evade the watching cruisers of Great Britain and France.

AFTER THE WAR

CHAPTER XXXVII

BEST STORIES OF THE WAR

Narratives of Heroism, Disaster, Humor and Pathos—Alsatian Who Went to War to Kill His Son—German Sailors Sink Cheering the Kaiser—English Poacher Who Became Killer of Uhlans—Heroism of Women Victims of War and Tales of Human Interest in Scenes of Carnage.

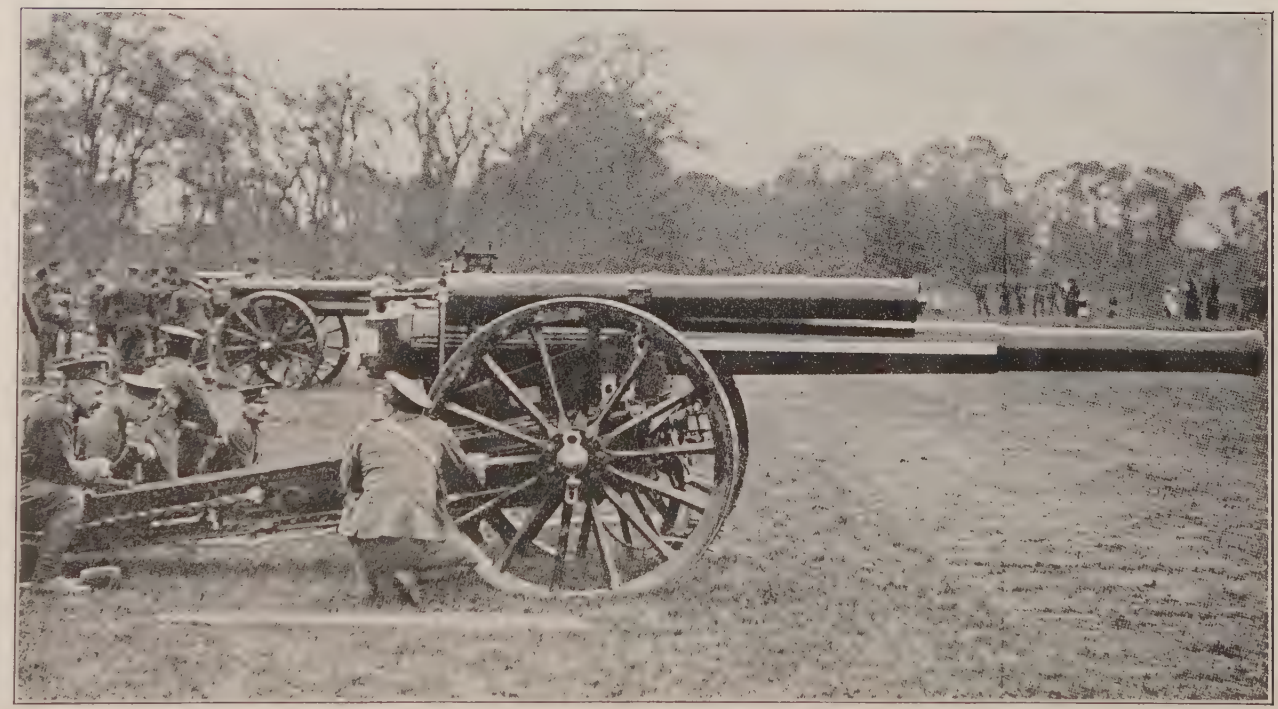
THE great European war of 1914 was crowded with events of heroism, of disaster, of humor and pathos, all fraught with intense human interest. Stories of some of these incidents appear elsewhere in this volume under the title of "Thrilling Experiences." Herewith are given others that may be classified as "The Best Stories of the War."

"I'M GOING TO FIGHT TO KILL MY SON!"

This story is told of the bravery of French women and men.

General de Castelnau and his three sons went to the front at the outbreak of the war and Mme. de Castelnau retired to the south. One of the sons was killed in the early fighting.

When the news of his son's death was conveyed to General de Castelnau on the battlefield he read the statement and



ENGLISH 60-PR. FINE RECOIL GUNS

GERMAN TELEGRAPH CORPS LAYING TELEPHONE WIRES ACROSS A RIVER

then said quietly: "Gentlemen, let us continue," and the battle was renewed.

When the news reached the country house of the family in the south the parish priest undertook the delicate task of conveying the news of the death of her son to Mme. de Castelnau. The priest tried to break the news to her but was so overcome with emotion that she guessed something serious had happened.

Mme. de Castelnau simply asked, "Which one?" meaning whether it was her husband or one of her three sons who had been killed.

When the Thirty-fifth Regiment of General Joffre's army entered Muelhausen an aged Alsatian offered the soldiers everything he possessed, pressing them to accept wine and food. After they had finished their meal he bade them farewell, saying:

"I am now going to fight to kill my son, who is in the Fortieth Regiment of German Infantry."

DIED CHEERING THE KAISER

An eye witness of the loss of the German cruiser Ariadne and the German torpedo boat destroyer V-157 in the fighting between British and German warships off Heligoland relates the following story of the fight:

"The destroyer was surprised in a fog by a large number of British destroyers and submarines. When the speed of the German destroyer became affected by the English shells it turned and confronted the enemy with the intention of fighting to the end. Her engines, however, soon completely failed her, and she was blown up to prevent capture. Her

crew continued firing until the boat disappeared beneath the waves.

"The Ariadne attacked gamely, but a shell plumped her boilers, putting half of them out of commission. Despite this the fight continued. The quarterdeck of the Ariadne took fire, but those of her guns that were still capable of being worked continued shooting.

"The forecastle of the Ariadne was soon ablaze. Her magazine was flooded, but the gallant vessel was doomed. Her crew was mustered and gave three cheers for the Kaiser and sang the hymn, 'The Flag and Germany Above All.' "

A BELGIAN DEAD SHOT

As an evidence of the indomitable spirit of the Belgians is this letter from a daring young man with a young wife and child who formerly was notorious as a poacher on game preserves. It was written in the siege of Namur while he was resting a moment:

"A few weeks ago," the letter says in part, "I was in France working in the beet fields. But because the proud Prussians attacked our country I had to leave and could not bring home a few gold coins for my family. I am feeling as well as possible, am whole and sound, and hope, with God's help, to see my home once more.

"The Prussians are poor shots. They don't know by a yard where they shoot, and when they see a bayonet they are so scared they just run. I have lost but very few bullets. When I aim for their noses, you can bet that they don't hear the bullets whiz by their ears. They get it right in the mouth. I never missed a bird on the wing, so how could I miss those

square head Uhlans? I settled more than fifty of them, and if God lets me live I'll cool off a few more. When they come we kill 'em like rats, meanwhile singing 'The Lion of Flanders.'

"Reverend Dear Father, while we send the Uhlans to the other country, please take care of my family and see that they may not suffer from hunger. Now I finish my letter to grab my gun and shoot Uhlans. X.

"Formerly poacher, now Uhlan killer."

WIFE OF CAPTOR GETS KAISER'S NEPHEW'S SWORD

During the hot fighting before Charleroi in the early part of the Belgian campaign, this incident occurred:

"A band of Uhlans was captured Sunday at the gates of Courtrai by a detachment of French chasseurs. Their chief officer was found to be Lieut. Count von Schwerin, a nephew of the Kaiser. The young commander was only twenty-five years old and had been married only seven months. The officer commanding the French detachment found that the Count's sword was a present from the Kaiser himself and bore an inscription to that effect on the blade.

"The Count's saber, belt and helmet were taken to St. Ouen and presented to the wife of the officer who made the capture."

GRITTY BRITISH AND GERMAN SAILORS

Many German shells which made hits in the naval engagement off Heligoland did not explode, according to British seamen, and at one time there were five in the boiler room of

one of the destroyers, any one of which would have destroyed the ship had it burst. A sailor, asked what they did with them, replied:

"Oh, just shied them overboard. There was no room for such rubbish aboard our yacht."

The German sailors showed equal grit. As one of the cruisers, decks aflame and mast and flag shot away, was sinking, the only man left in the forecastle hoisted the flag and then went down with the ship.

RODE INTO THE JAWS OF DEATH

A correspondent describing the fighting before Malines said:

"I could see dark blue masses of Belgian infantry falling back, cool as on a winter's morning. Through a mistake, two battalions of carbineers did not receive the order to retire and were in imminent danger of destruction. To reach them a messenger would have had to traverse a mile of open road swept by shrieking shrapnel. A colonel summoned a gendarme and gave him the orders and he set spurs to his horse and tore down the road, an archaic figure in towering bearskin. It was a ride into the jaws of death.

"He saved his troops, but as they fell back the German gunners got the range and dropped shell upon shell into the running column. Road and fields were dotted with corpses in Belgian blue.

"At noon the Belgians and Germans were in places only fifty yards apart, and the rattle of musketry sounded like a boy drawing a stick along the palings of a picket fence. The railway embankment from which I viewed the battle was

fairly carpeted with corpses of infantrymen killed yesterday. I saw peasants throw twelve into one grave."

SPIRIT OF HUMANITY OF NAVAL LORD

A spirit of humanity to man is reflected in a message from the head of the British Navy to the head of the German Navy, which was transmitted through the Department of State at Washington, informing the latter of the safety of his son after a naval battle, in which the son had been reported among the slain.

The message, which was from Winston Churchill, First Lord of the British Admiralty, to Admiral von Tirpitz, German Minister of Marine, was as follows:

"Your son has been saved and has not been wounded."

Secretary Bryan made public the dispatch with the comment: "There is something noble in the spirit." The message was sent to Ambassador Gerard at Berlin, who conveyed it to Admiral von Tirpitz.

HEROISM OF WOMEN VICTIMS OF WAR

A correspondent writing of scenes along the French frontier in the early days of the war said:

"In the past two days I have watched many cases of women's heroism—not the self-denial of the Red Cross nurses, for to that one is accustomed—but a long procession of weary women cheerfully encouraging the children, hungry, tired and footsore, or with their bones aching from the jolting of the farm carts, was a picture of splendid courage, which made you understand how a nation becomes resolute in the face of war.

"One woman I met at an evacuated town was proceeding with her splendid son, aged ten, and a delightfully talkative little girl of eight, to a place where her children would be safe. This cultured lady was the wife of a captain of cavalry.

"As she looked back at her home at Longwy, she saw a lifetime's treasures burnt, but sadness of her heart was not betrayed to her children. This family had not tasted food for three days; the children did not want to eat, while the mother starved.

"The bright eyes of the boy were not dimmed by exhaustion; instead of hearing complaints of hardships, you were questioned as to the latest news from the battle line.

"This small family, which I watched for eight hours in the sternly fought area, was but a type of thousands of others. Truly war brings out the best as well as the worst of humanity."

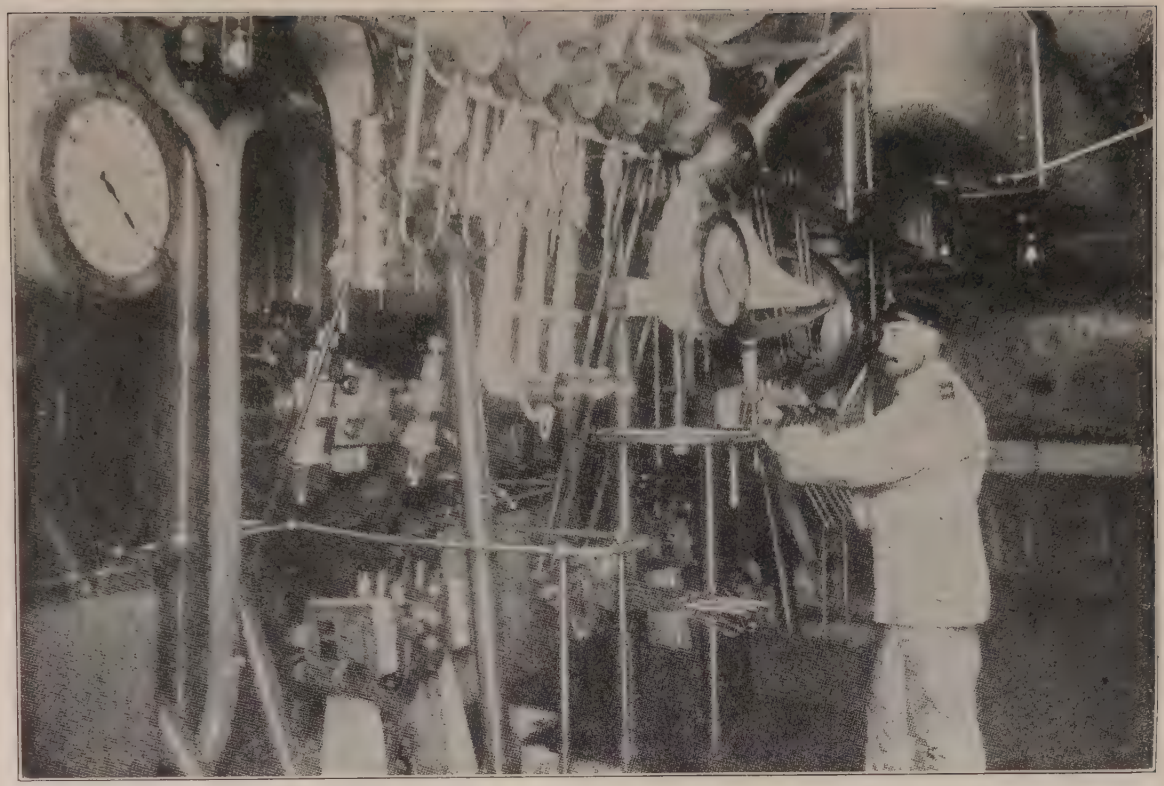
LIFE IN THE TRENCHES

A Brussels correspondent gave the following picture of life in the Belgian trenches:

"Sometimes the trenches are only just ditches cut like deep furrows among potatoes or along the edge of a field of corn. Others are banked on the attacking side and branches are placed over them to screen the men from the eyes of airmen.

"Along the quiet banks of the Meuse between Namur and Dinant are three score of these (trenches). There I saw men lying in readiness with rifles by their sides. Some were asleep on the earth, with a little straw under them, but ready at a word to seize their weapons. Others were gossiping.

THE BOILER ROOM ON A WARSHIP



THE ENGINE ROOM ON A WARSHIP

" 'What do you think of to talk about in the trenches?' I asked a man who was off duty for a moment. His answer was:

" 'Oh, anything—the heat, the flies, our experiences. Don't think we confide much in each other. When one is in a situation such as that one catches at anything interesting. We do not talk philosophy but some of us practise it. Most are only waiting for orders to kill, perhaps just as one waits for a tram and lets one's interest be taken by anything.' "

AIRMAN'S THRILLING TRIP

The following letter from a German military aviator to his parents was printed in the Brandenburger *Zeitung:*

"Last Saturday night, while our company still lay in garrison, I received orders to start on a flight into the enemy's country at daybreak the following morning. The assignment was as follows: Over a French fortress, thence westward to Maas and back the entire distance of 300 kilometers (about 186 miles).

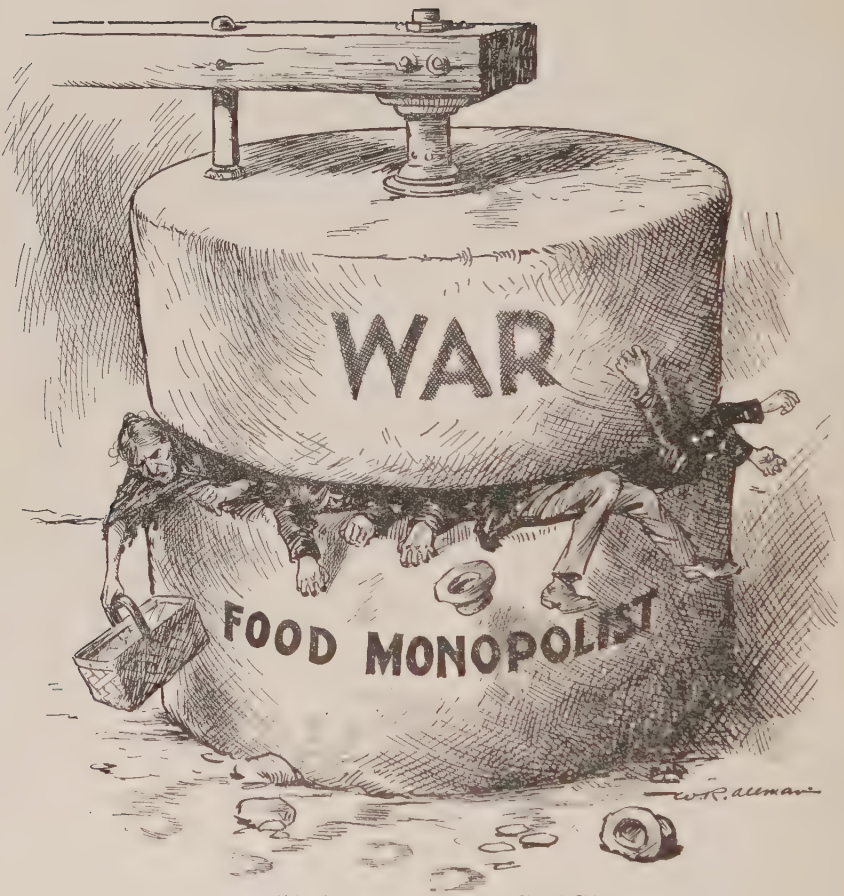
"By way of preparation maps of the whole region were minutely studied till midnight. Next morning at cock-crow our Gotha-Taube rolled across the city square, then rose and headed westerly. In half an hour we had reached an altitude of 1,200 meters above the town. Then we headed for the French border, and immediately my observer, First Lieutenant A., called my attention to little black puffs of smoke, and I knew at once we were being fired at by hostile artillery, so climbed to 2,000 meters.

"Next we noticed that three of the enemy's aeroplanes were pursuing us, but we soon outdistanced and lost sight of

them. Later we heard that two of the enemy's aeroplanes had been brought down by our artillery. Both hands of one of the pilots were said to have been blown away by a shot.

"With a threefold 'Hurrah!' we now flew over the border toward a battlefield of the war of 1870-71, which we reached without any further untoward incidents. Here we noticed long columns of troops marching from the south toward the northeast. We circled around the place and then started toward Maas.

"We were now continuously fired upon. I saw, among other things, how a battalion of infantry stopped in the street and aimed at us. Silently and quietly we sat in our Taube and wondered what would happen next. Suddenly I noticed a faint quivering throughout the whole aeroplane; that was all. As I saw later, one of the planes had four holes made by rifle bullets."



WILL WARS EVER CEASE?

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